GAZETTEER OF INDIA

MADHYA PRADESH

JABALPUR

MADHYA PRADESH DISTRICT GAZETTEERS

JABALPUR

By

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DISTRICT GAZETTEERS DEPARTMENT
MADHYA PRADESH
BHOPAL

PREFACE

Preliminary work on Jabalpur Gazetteer was completed by the year 1964. After finalization, the draft-gazetteer was sent for comments to the members of the State Advisory Board and the Gazetteers Unit, Ministry of Education, Government of India, in April, 1965. The Press-Copy of the Gazetteer was sent to the Government Press on 10th November, 1966, after incorporating suggestions sent by the Government of India and the State Advisory Board.

The State Advisory Board then consisted of the following members :—

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(21) Assistant State Editor Revision of District Gazetteers, Madhya Pradesh.

CONVENER (*ex Officio*)

(22) Shri P. N. Shrivastav, State Editor, Revision of District Gazetteers, Madhya Pradesh.

A word about the preparation of Gazetteers. Often, a question is posed: how is a gazetteer different from a report or a directory or a compendium, brought out by the Government agencies? In fact, once an educated individual holding a responsible post wanted to know from the State Editor as to how a gazetteer is different from a gazette! This just shows how necessary it is for the common man, and sometimes even for the elite, to arrive at a proper understanding and appraisal of the nature of work connected with gazetteer-writing.

A gazetteer is essentially historical in approach. Through the evolutionary process of an institution, it tries to delve deep into the causes and the effects of social phenomena. Tracing the source, often hidden in the oblivion of remote ages, it careers along the thin course of the stream of events, till finally it keeps pace with the broad flow of the present times. The result is not the magnified collection of a set of particular data at a focal point, but the prismatic refraction of light presenting a whole aura in its vast, uncircumstantial setting. It is a whole and not a part. It is an epic and not a ballad. It is this all-pervasive character of the gazetteer which saves it from the drab monotony of a mere statistical compilation.

This brings us to the nature of work being done in a Gazetteers Department. The unassuming, devoted band of scholars happening

to stray into the fold—either deliberately or unwittingly—develop in course of time a historical perception, research technique and felicity of expression. No doubt, all subjects included in the formidable compass of a gazetteer do not easily lend themselves to be transformed into a research dissertation. But the stamp of painstaking labour, analytical treatment and harmony of narration is invariably there. The work of preparing a gazetteer is a highly technical process, transcending the bounds of a mere felicitous writing, and often surpassing sheer research by virtue of its readability and literary touch wherever possible. The cognoscente is specially recommended chapters on History and Places of Interest of any gazetteer in this connection. He will be happily amazed to find what an amount of study of history, archaeology, anthropology, epigraphy, numismatics, mythology and folk-lore is requisitioned to create a complete, connected and highly sensitive picture.

Heavily indebted as we are to the author of the old Jabalpur District Gazetteer, we may, however, be permitted to say in all humility that this new Gazetteer is not a mere revision of the existing one. It is rewritten *ab ovo usque ad mala*. Conditions of life and its environments have assumed new dimensions. The pattern of gazetteer-writing has undergone an essential change. It is no more an administrative or academic pastime—at times motivated by political considerations as in the past--but an attempt to draw the silhouette of an aspiring people on their onward march on the newly-opened paths of democracy. The panorama is as picturesque as it is diversified. There is thus a conceptual and methodological change in the work of the gazetteer writing

At this juncture, when our herculean labour—by no means all mercenary—has reached fruition, the State Editor deems it a pleasure and a privilege to acknowledge in full measure the great help rendered by the Gazetteers Unit, Ministry of Education, Government of India. But for their invaluable suggestions for improving the matter and removing errors, the Jabalpur Gazetteer would not have attained the quality the reader may, in whatever measure, be inclined to ascribe to it. Being a novice embarking upon an ambitious venture, on unchartered seas, he remembers with fond gratitude the personal advice and great encouragement given by Dr. P. N. Chopra, Editor, Gazetteers Unit, Ministry of Education, Government of India.

The State Editor places on record his sense of indebtedness to his worthy predecessors, Prof. V. S Krishnan and Shri K. P. Chaube, whose work served him as a beacon-light. Shri K. P. Chaube got most of the preliminary work completed on this Gazetteer and even edited a few earlier, economic chapters. Shri L. C. Goswami, as

Assistant State Editor, carried forward the initial work and took special interest in the preparation of the earlier part of the History chapter. Pandit Dwarka Prasad Mishra, then the Chief Minister and the Chairman of the State Advisory Board, evinced keen interset in the work and even made valuable suggestions on Tripuri Excavations and Modern History period. Babu Ramanuj Lal Shrivastava, the veteran litterateur of Jabalpur and Dr. R. Guru greatly obliged us by supplying valuable notes for the write-up on 'Men of Letters'.

The Gazetteers Department obtained valuable help from the Anthropological Survey of India, Calcutta, for the chapter on People.

It is the pleasant duty of the State Editor to acknowledge the value of the devoted work done by the following Officers of the Gazetteers Department :—

EDITORS—Shri S. D. Guru, Shri Vishnu Saran, Shri M. M. Muley, Shri P. K. Bhatnagar and Shri S. Dube.

COMPILERS—Shri R. R. Jain, Shri R. K. Shrivastava, Shri M. P. Dube, Shri K. A. S. Bais, Shrimati N. Sen, Shri K. R. R. C. Nair, Shri M. L. Tiwari, Shri R. N. Sharma, Shri V. K. Bajhal, Shri S. S. Dasondhi, Shri K. Parmar and Shri T. S. Sarma.

The State Editor is highly appreciative of the work of Shri S. D. Guru, Assistant State Editor, who not only gave the History Chapter, which may rightly be called the crown of the whole piece, its present shape and quality, but also took great pains to see the publication through. In this task, he was ably assisted by Dr. R. K. Jain, Shri K. R. R. C. Nair and Shri R. K. Nayak. Shri R. C. Munje, Shri S. M. Rastogi and Shri Nawal Kishore prepared bibliography, appendices and index, respectively. All the three Maps were prepared in the Gazetteers Department itself by Shri Yaduraj Singh under the guidance of Shri N. P. Pandey. Shri K. A. S. Bais, the indefatigable officer, supervised the printing-work with efficiency. Shri R. N. Mahobiya, Superintendent, assisted by the whole clerical staff, proved to be a great help at all stages.

The State Editor feels beholden to the following gentlemen for enriching the photographic section of the gazetteer:—

Prof. K. D. Bajpai, Head of the Department of Ancient Indian Histroy and Culture, University of Saugar; the Superintendent, Archaeological Survey of India, Central Circle, Bhopal; the Chief Epigraphist, Archaeological Survey of India, Mysore; the Directorate

of Archaeology and Museums, Madhya Pradesh; the Superintendent, Census Department, Madhya Pradesh; Shri Hira Lal Gupta of Nai-Dunia, Jabalpur and Shri V. C. Hatvalne, Photographer.

The State Editor also wishes to thank Shri K. S. Sivaraman, Superintendent, Government Printing, M P., Shri W. D. Sawant, Deputy Superintendent ; Shri M. G. Tiwari, Assistant Superintendent and Shri B. L. Rao of the Government Press, for their full cooperation and interest.

Jabalpur is one of the most important districts of Madhya Pradesh. It is rich in historical events, political developments, social movements, educational progress and cultural heritage. Our modest effort has been to catch the variegated patterns of the life of its people in all its rich kaleidoscopic variety. Yet, omissions are bound to be many. All that we can hope for is the indulgence of the scholar who will readily appreciate the enormity of the task and the limited resources and time at the disposal of the Gazetteers Department. Depending more on the magnanimity of the reader and less on our own worthiness, we present the Gazetteer with an invocation from the Swan of the Avon:—

"For his bounty, there was no winter in't; an autumn 'twas that grew more by reaping".

P N Shrivastav

BHOPAL: (P. N. SHRIVASTAV)
27th August 1968. *State Editor.*

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Marble Rocks

CHAPTER I.

GENERAL

The Jabalpur District takes its name from the city of the same name which is the headquarters both of the District and the Jabalpur Revenue Division. The origin of the name 'Jabalpur' is not free from doubt. The explanations suggested so far appear speculative. One school of thought suggests the derivation from the location of Jabalpur close to Tripuri (modern Tewar village) the capital of the Kalachuri kings Two inscriptions[1] of the Kalachuri dynasty record the grant of villages in Jauli *pattala* of which Jabalpur is believed to be the most natural corruption. Rai Bahadur Hiralal shared the view that the place was named after Javali, a Brahmin sage. It has also been suggested that the name has been derived from the Arabic word "Jabal", meaning a 'hill' or 'mountain', the site of the town being partially in a hilly country.[2]

Location, General Boundaries, Area and Population

Lying between 22° 49' and 24° 8' North latitude and 78° 21' and 80° 58' East longitude, Jabalpur is one of the central districts of Madhya Pradesh The Tropic of Cancer passes through the middle of the District and divides it into nearly equal halves The shape of the District viewed from its north-west to south-east axis has the appearance of a butterfly with its wings spread out, and approximates a rectangle. Its greatest length from south-west to north-east is 120 miles (193.1 Kms.) and its maximum width from west to east is 72 miles (115.87 Kms). It is bounded on the north by Panna district, on the north-east by Satna district, on the east by Shahdol district, on the south-east by Mandla district, on the south by Mandla and Seoni districts, on the south-west by Narsimhapur district and on the west and north-west by Damoh district.[3] The district covers an area of 3908 sq. miles (10,122 sq. Kms.) and has a population of 1,273,825 or 326 persons per sq. mile according to the Census of 1961.

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1. Epigraphia Indica, Vol. II, pp. I, 7.

2. Jubbulpore District Gazetteer, 1909, p. 1.

3. According to the Surveyor-General of India, the area of the District is 3918 Sq. miles (10147 Sq. Kms.). The difference is due to different methods of survey adopted by the Surveyor-General and the State Survey Organization.

The Maratha Pandits of Sagar took possession of Garha-Mandla in 1781 and fixed their headquarters at Jabalpur, degrading Mandla, till then the capital of the Gond State, as a subah subordinate to Jabalpur. The territory was ceded by the Peshwa in 1798 to the Bhonslas of Nagpur under whom also Jabalpur enjoyed the same status. Jabalpur was occupied by the British troops in 1817 and a Provisional Government was formed under the Presidentship of Major O' Brien. When this Provisional Government was abolished in 1818, the District with the rest of the 'Nerbudda country' was for a time governed by a Commissioner who was subject to the control of the Resident at Nagpur In 1820 a division of 12 districts called the 'Saugor and Nerbudda Territories' was formed and placed under an Agent to the Governor-General with its headquarters at Jabalpur. In the year 1835 Saugor and Nerbbudda Territories were included in the newly constituted North-Western Provinces. This area became a part of the Central Provinces in 1861 when the new Province was formed.

Jabalpur District included in addition to its present area (except the Bijairaghogarh Pargana) the Parganas of Heerapur till the Bundela rising of 1842, Ramgarh of Mandla district and Sohagpur of Shahdol district up to 1851, and Sigrampur of Damoh district up to 1869. In 1849 the *munsifi* of Mandla was transferred from Seoni to Jabalpur district. Later in 1851 the *munsifi* of Mandla together with Ramgarh and Sohagpur was constituted a separate district After the Bundela rising of 1842, Hirapur taluk was transferred to Narsimhapur district. The native State of Bijairaghogarh was confiscated by the British and added to Jabalpur District as a tahsil in 1865. In the year 1869, 129 villages, including Singrampur pargana were trasferred from Jabalpur district to Damoh district. Since then there was no major change in the boundary of the District until 1950, when five villages, *viz*, Dhanwati, Khirwa, Hardua, Chori and Pipra of the adjoining states of Maihar and Nagod were transferred to Murwara tahsil and eleven villages *viz*. Khalong, Manda, Kai, Banjaria, Gunda, Pitehra, Gunraiya, Jhanjbar, Pachoha, Junwaria and Bara were transferred from Murwara tahsil to Vindhya Pradesh under the Provinces and States (Absorption of Enclaves), Order 1950.

Prior to 1856 the district was divided into three tahsils, *viz*., Jabalpur, Sihora and Sleemanabad, but in that year Jabalpur was considered too big for administration and was split into two with

headquarters at Jabalpur and Patan. In 1861 the Patan tahsil was abolished. With the addition of Bijairaghogarh as a tahsil in 1865, the number of tahsils in the District was again raised to four. But this tahsil too was later altered and abolished. On the transfer of Singrampur pargana to Damoh, three tahsils were reorganized with headquarters at Jabalpur, Sihora and Murwara. This arrangement continued till 1909 when Patan tahsil was reconstituted out of Jabalpur tahsil, thus raising the number of tahsils to four, *viz.*, Jabalpur, Sihora, Murwara and Patan. These tahsils occupy the southern, central, northern and south-western portions of the District, respectively.

This administrative set-up has continued since then. The following are the Police Stations (Thanas) located in each of the tahsils—

Jabalpur Tahsil —Jabalpur Kotwali, Hanumantal, Lordganj, Omti, Ghamapur, Gorakhpur, Cantonment, Civil Lines, Khamaria, Goshalpur, Belbagh, Panagar, Garha, Barela, Bargi and Kundam.

Sihora Tahsil.—Sihora, Majhagawan, Majholi, Dhimarkhera, Umaria, Sleemanabad and Bahoriband.

Murwara Tahsil.—Katni, Tikuri, Badwara, Barhi, Bijairaghogarh, Kymore and Rithi.

Patan Tahsil.—Patan, Katangi, Shahpura and Belkhera.

TOPOGRAPHY

The Jabalpur District consists of a long narrow plain running from south-west to north-east flanked by the Bhanrer and Kaimur ranges of the Vindhyan system on the west and the various hills and spurs of the Mahadeo range and the Maikal range. The Bhitrigarh range and a few subsidiary hills intrude upon in the middle of the district and practically join the Vindhyan and the Satpura systems which together form the Great Central Watershed of India. Thus the major natural divisions of the District are :—

1. The Vindhyan tract.
2. The South-Eastern plateaus of the Satpura and their extensions.
3. The Bhitrigarh range and the associated hill area.
4. The North-Eastern valleys of the Mahanadi and the Katni.

The Vindhyan Tract

The Bhanrer and the Kaimur ranges which belong to the Vindhyan system lie at the western boundary of the District. The Bhanrer range which is in fact the south-eastern edge of the Vindhyan plateau, presents a very abrupt and steep escarp, almost, vertical towards Jabalpur and lookes like a lofty wall of varying height along the southern half of the western boundary of Jabalpur district. The top of this escarpment forms the boundary between Jabalpur and Damoh districts and at its foot, very close to it flows the Hiran leaving a narrow strip of land between its right bank and the hill. Near about Katangi the Bhanrer range throws off a number of spurs and becomes a complex mass of hills varying in elevation from 1500 to 2000 feet spreading out towards west into the Damoh district. Eastwards a few scattered outcrops occur in the direction of Lora hill and Bhitrigarh range beyond *Sihora*. The Kaimur range appears at Katangi and runs nearly parallel to and a little east of the Bhanrer scarp forming the boundary between Jabalpur and Damoh for some distance. Near the western bend of *Sohar nala the ridge deflects more to the east leaving a stretch of hilly* country to the north-west and extends towards the Bhainsakund peak (2086'), beyond Bahoriband and Kaliha Khurd Thereafter, with the exception of Deodongra hill in between it dips to reappear near *Jukehi railway station. It then*, runs along the entire northern boundary of Murwara tahsil to its north-eastern corner. The scarp extends from Bhainsakund in a northerly direction overlooking the narrow valleys of *Katni* and Aloni to the east.

West and north-west of Bhainsakund, lies a highly dissected plateau. The plateau drains into the Ken and the Aloni in the north-east, the Kahir in the east, the Sohar in the south, the Pabra in the west and the *Kandarhanala* and *the Kon in the north and* is a good example of radial drainage. Where the Vindhyas prevail the country is a series of rounded mounds and gentle depressions. The *soil* is poor, shallow and crystalline and the forest growth also is poor and scanty.

The South-Eastern plateaus of the Satpura and their extensions.

The Narmada cuts across the Satpuras south of Jabalpur and the hills fan out along the south-eastern boundary of the District. The whole area of the Satpura in the south-east is covered by the volcanic lava and presents the typical features of the Deccan Trap Region, *viz*., flat-topped hills, hill sides marked by conspicuous terraces and the prevalence of long grass on black volcanic soils on the slopes or in the valley *bottoms*. *The* area is marked by the

dominance of teak along its southern boundary. The general height of the table land is about 1500′ south of the Narmada and about 1750′ east of Jabalpur. Some of the peaks in the south-east rise to over 2000′, the village of Duria lies at an elevation of 2426 feet. The country is generally wild and broken. The prevailing soil is poor in quality, the mantle of black clayey loam being thin except in valleys where it is deep as around Bargi. At the north eastern extremity of the trap area the Satpuras continue to the north almost parallel to the Mahanadi river which serves as the eastern boundary of the District. The area presents a succession of low hills on the metamorphic rocks of the transition type and valleys with good soils. The Khitoli area of Murwara tahsil is also hilly where *mahua* and *sal* flourish on the crystalline soil.

The Bhitrigarh range and the associated hills

The Bhitrigarh range runs across the middle of the District from south-west to north-east. It consists of metamorphic rocks and meets the spurs of the Satpura nearly at right angle. To the south-west it appears abruptly from the alluvial plain as an out-crop and has a general elevation of 1500′ to 1800′ above mean sea level The highest peak of Bhitrigarh hill is 2046′ high. The range constitutes the water-shed between the catchment of the Hiran in the south and that of the Katni in the north. Lora hill, an isolated outcrop of the range, lies a few miles west of it. The broken country between the Bhitrigarh range and the Kaimur is studded with hills of varying heights and magnitudes. West of Sleemanabad the country consists mainly of a sequence of ridges with poor soil cover on their slopes and thicker and better soil in the natural basins here and there. An undulating plain of poor soil, dotted with numerous sand-stone hills, extends from the Bhitrigarh range in the South to the Deodongra hill in the north.

To the north east of the Bhitrigarh range a low and staggering ridge spreads out as far as the confluence of the Mahanadi and the Katni rivers.

The Haveli.—Between the bordering high lands of the Vindhyas in the west and the Satpuras in the east, is the low-lying Narmada-Hiran Plain, known as the Haveli. It extends from the south western boundary of the District as far north as the town of Sihora and from the Hiran to the Jabalpur-Allahabad railway line and includes the Saroli-Majhgawan tract beyond the line. The Haveli is a plain country mostly covered with very rich soil suitable for agriculture,

The North-Eastern Valleys.—The north-eastern plain formed by the Mahanadi and the Kahir occupies the eastern part of the Murwara tahsil. The plain is bordered by the Kaimur range in the north and the west. The *Kahenjua* hill traverses the country, north of the Mahanadi, from south-west to north-east. Its offshoots to the north and the south affect the quality of the soil which otherwise is alluvial. The most fertile land is found in the valley lying between the Kaimur and the Kahenjua hills and along the banks of the Mahanadi. The south-eastern and eastern parts of the area are covered with forests.

There are some other narrow valleys along the northern boundary of the District. Notable among these are, those of Aloni. Ken and Patna.

RIVER SYSTEM

Lying at the junction of the Vindhya and the Satpura range, Jabalpur District forms part of the great Central Watershed of India. The southern half is drained by the Narmada and its tributaries, the Hiran and the Gaur, the northern half by the tributaries of the Jamna and the Son The water-divide runs along the Bhitrigarh range and the associated hills. The general slope of the Narmada valley proper is towards the west; that of its tributary, the Hiran being towards the south-west. Excepting the plateau to the west and north-west of Bhainsakund, which has radial drainage, the northern half of the District generally slopes towards the north-east. The area along the eastern boundary of the District is drained by the Mahanadi, a tributary of the Son which flows towards north The river regime is characteristic of monsoon lands with a long dry season and rainy period of about four months in a year. The rivers and *nullahs* swell and sometime overflow their banks during the monsoon season and are in many cases almost day in the summer This accounts for their channels appearing too wide in all but the rainy season. Land erosion is well visible along the river banks. The large fluctuation in the water-supply, steep banks, and strong beds of the major rivers make their utilization for irrigation, navigation and generation of hydro-electricity rather difficult. The drainage in the District is generally of the dendritic type except in the valley of the Narmada, along the right bank of the Hiran below Katangi and in the Mahanadi valley along the Shahdol boundary wherein it is of the straight trunk and trellis pattern. The plateau north of Bahoriband perents an example of radial drainage.

River Narmada.—

The Narmada is one of the seven most sacred rivers referred to in religious books, but is not mentioned in the *Rig Veda* since the first wave of Aryan migrants into the Northern India had not probably penetrated far into the peninsula beyond the Indo-Gangetic plain. It has also been omitted in the *Sutras* of Panini. This river was known to Ptolemy and the author of the *Periplus* as the *Nommados* or *Nammadius*, but not noticed by Magasthenes. The Reva Khand of the *Skanda Puran* has a chapter devoted to the traditional story and relates many legends regarding the birth of the Narmada. One of the legends is that it sprung from the body of Lord Shiva after his performance of a great penance in the Riksha Mountain (a part of the Vindhyachal), whence it acquired its great virtues. It says how the river was created in the form of a lovely damsel whose beauty captivated the gods and brought them all to her feet. Shiva laughed when he saw the enamoured gods and named her Narmada, or delight-giving. In Central India, the Narmada is held to be far more sacred than any other stream, so much so that even the Ganga is supposed to come and dip in it once a year. She comes in the form of a coal-black cow and returns home pure white free from all sins. Mere sight of the Narmada is equivalent to a bath in the Ganga, and such are its virtues that all sins of a person who sees or dips into it are removed. Religious fairs are held on its banks all along its course, of these Bheraghat and Gwarighat lie in Jabalpur District.

The Narmada is the principal river of the District. It rises at Amarkantak (Lat. 22°40′ N. and Longi. 81°46′ E.) in Shahdol district and enters the District through Mandla from the south at the trijunction of Jabalpur, Mandla and Seoni districts. In Jabalpur district it pursues a northerly course for about 28 miles across the Satpuras. It turns towards west near its confluence with the Gaur, one of its right bank tributaries which rises in Mandla. Approximately 11 miles from Jabalpur occurs a beautiful fall of some 30 feet known as 'Dhuan-dhar', a stream of mist. Thereafter the river passes through the well-known gorge of the Marble Rocks of Bheraghat. The river meanders here in a deep narrow channel amongst deposits of mangne sian limestone with about 100 feet high banks producing an extremely picturesque effect especially by moon light. The cliff of the Marble Rocks at the highest point was measured 40.5 metres (133 ft.) from the general water level on December 16, 1965. It is a place of scenic beauty and of considerable interest to sight-seekers who visit the place in large numbers every day in the dry season. Beyond the Marble Rocks the river enters a plain and traverses the southern portion of

the District and leaves the District at Sankal beyond its confluence with the Hiran river. It forms for some distance the south-western boundary between Jabalpur and Narsimhapur districts. The total length of the river in the District is about seventy miles.

Hiran.–The Hiran is the principal right bank tributary of the Narmada in the district. It takes its rise at Kundam (23° 19′ N., 80° 21′ E.) near the south-eastern boundary of the District. It takes a northerly course for about 30 miles through the trap country. It then turns to the west and runs to Katangi through a zigzag course crossing the Central Railway line and the Jabalpur-Mirzapur road nearly two miles south of Sihora Road Station. From Katangi, the Hiran runs in south-westerly direction close to the Bhanrer scarp until it joins the Narmada between Sankal and Hirapur. It is joined by the Belkund, the Sohar and the Kair *nalas* from the north, while the Kadri and the Pariat *nalas* join it from the south. The Pariat is its principal affluent. The river is approximately 120 miles long.

Gaur.—This river rises near Niwas in Mandla district and from near Sukri in the south-east of the Jabalpur tahsil, forms the inter-district boundary for some distance. Near the village Bilaura it runs north for a little distance and then taking a south-westerly course crosses the Mandla-Jabalpur road at Gwarighat and joins the Narmada on its right bank near the Jabalpur-Gondia Narrow Gauge railway-bridge, approximately 7 miles south of Jabalpur. The total length of the river is 49 miles.

Mahanadi.—It is an important feeder of the Son, a tributary of the Ganga. It rises in Mandla district and pursues a northerly course closely parallel to or along the eastern boundary. It enters the Bijairaghogarh tract and receives the water of Umrar *nala* from the right. It turns east from its confluence with the Katni, a tributary stream on the left. It leaves the District at its trijunction with the districts of Shahdol and Satna.

Katni.–The Katni river rises near Jajangara village on the northern slope of the Bhitrigarh range (23° 35′ N., 80° 20′ E.) and drains the area north of the Bhitrigarh range. It flows, passing through Sleemanabad, towards the south upto Bilhari and then turns to the north-east. Flowing past Murwara town it joins the Mahanadi south of Bijairaghogarh. The Niwar and the Sumrar *nalas* join it from the south.

Ken.–The river rises in village Mamar close to the northern boundary but it remains only a stream in this District and passes into Panna district.

Lakes and Tanks.

There are numerous artificial lakes and tanks in the District. The largest among them is the Bahoriband reservoir. Smaller tanks are constructed by bunding a slope on two or three sides. The purpose of the tanks is usually to conserve water for domestic use, drinking, pisciculture and in some cases irrigation. The larger ones which are mainly for irrigation are constructed by damming streams at convenient sites between hills which flank them. A list of the more important tanks and reservoirs in the District is given in Appendix I.

GEOLOGY*

The geological formations found in the district are:—

Age	Group	Series/Stages
Recent	10. Newer alluvial soils, etc.	
Pleistocene	9. Older Narbada alluvium	
Pleistocene to Recent ..	8. Laterite.	
Upper Cretaceous to Eocene	7. Deccan Traps	
Upper Cretaceous	6. Lameta Beds	
Upper Jurassic	5. Upper Gondwana System-Jabalpur Series.	
Late Pre-Cambrian (Purana) or early Palaeozoic (Vindhyan System).	4. Upper Vindhyan	Upper Bhander Series. Lower Bhander Series. Rewa Series.
	3. Lower Vindhyan Semri Series.	Rohtas Stage Kheinjua Stage Porcellanite Stage Basal Stage.
Pre-Cambrian (Archaean) .	2. Bijawar Series .. .. 1. Granites and gneisses	

*Information provided by the Geological Surevey of India.

1. **Granites and gneisses.**—The granites which show a faint gneissic structure, are found in isolated patches at intervals along a north-east to south-west line from near Lamhetaghat on the Narmada river through Jabalpur, for some distance to the north-east. Madan Mahal, an old Gond castle, stands on a granite hill. The granite is considered to be younger than the Bijawars but it is probable that some of the gneisses in the District are older than the Bijawars.

2. **Bijawar series.**—At the head of the Narmada valley in the north, there is a continuous exposure of rocks belonging to the Bijawar series which consists of crystalline limestones, quartzites and schists. Though not much disturbed, the Bijawars are in an advanced stage of metamorphism. The limestone is generally crystalline; the schists are often highly micaceous, hornblendic and garnetiferous. The iron-ore found is mostly the micaceous form of haematite. The formations generally have low undulating dips but are much contorted locally. The thickness of the exposed formations is probably less than 360 metres but the base is not seen. North and north-east of Jabalpur, the beds have been divided into the following stages—

4. Chanderdip stage	Sihora sub-stage
3. Lora stage	Gosalpur sub-stage
2. Bhitri stage	
1. Majhauli stage	

Bose[1] unites the Majhauli and Bhitri stages into one and describes it as consisting of limestones, shales and greenstones. The limestones are dolomitic and grade into fine-grained marbles. They are never continuous over any considerable distance. At places they contain chert and jasper bands. The famous Marble Rocks of the Narmada gorge, form almost perpendicular cliffs rising upto heights of over 35 metres on both the banks. These contain dolomitic or calcitic rocks metamorphosed only to a moderate extent. The colour of the rocks is glassy white but with smoky shades and blackish or reddish linings. These are attributed to Majhauli or Bhitri Stage.

The Gosalpur sub-stage is composed principally of quartzites and some banks of conglomerates. In quartzites bedding is seldom noticeable but there are occasional thin partings of micaceous haematite. The Sihora sub-stage consists of salty shales and haematite jaspers and quartzites Banded haematite quartzites are well

1. P. N Bose—The magniferous iron and manganese ores of Jabalpur in Rec. Geological Survey of India, Vol XXII, Calcutta, 1889.

developed in the Lora Range east of Sihora. The typical rock is composed of alternating bands or thin layers of reddish lavender of whitish jasper or jaspery quartzite and schistose micaceous haematite.

The Chanderdip stage consists of mica-schists and limestones. Several sills of epidiorite are seen among the schist and marbles. The dolomitic limestones near Sleemanabad are traversed by quart-porphyry dykes and metalliferous veins forming a parallel system and probably genetically related. The minerals found in the veins include chalcopyrite tetrahedrite, galena, pyrite and barite with malachite, azurite, charysocolla and osices of iron and manganese as gossan products (One of the dykes shows abundant patches of violet or colourless flourite.).

3 **Lower Vindhyans**—The Lower Vindhyan formations form a strip of country in the north-eastern portion of the District and a little to the south-west of Katni, they disappear owing to a fault that has brought the younger Rewah formations into contact with the older Bijawar formations. This formation can be divided into four stages: Basel, Porcellanite, Kheinjua and Rohtas. The Basel stage consists of sandstones and conglomerates overlain by shales and limestones. These rocks are found immediately to the south-east of Amarpur. The Porcellanite stage has been traced as a thin band running for about 18 kilometres in a north-east direction through Bachi to Amarpur on the border of the District in its north-east corner. Another band is found some 6 kilometres to the north. The porcellanites are black to pale green rocks of procelain like feature and have been shown to be altered rhyolitic tuffs and are thus of volcanic origin.

The Kheinjua stage is about 180 metres thick and is best developed in the Kheinjua Range of hills in the north-east corner of the District. The rocks of this group are principally olive shales and glauconite sand-stones; but in the Kheinjua range, there are three thick beds of fawn-coloured limestones. The Rohtas stage, 120 to 210 metres thick, consists of limestones with shale beds. It is these limestones that are being worked at Katni.

4. **Upper Vindhyans**—Practically the whole of the north-western boundary of the District is occupied by the upper Vindhyans, the general strike of which is NE-SW with dips to the NW. The Upper Rewah formations form a thin fringe of rocks of the south-east of the Bhanders, from which they seem to be separated by a strike fault through a large portion of their course in this District. The Upper Rewahs are about 300 metres thick and consist of massive to flaggy sandstones which form the Kaimur range of hills.

This range runs with a NE-SW strike along the northern borders of the District except near Bilahri where it exhibits a N-S strike for a few kilometres widening out at the same time. The boundary between the Rewahs and the Bijawars to the south-west of Bilahri is defined by a strike fault which separates the lower Vindhyans and the Bijawars for some distance.

The lower Bhanders are about 440 metres thick and are composed of shales, limestones and sandstones. They form a fringe along a north-east to south-west line between Katangi and Bilahri but on the south-west of Katangi they are either obscured by alluvium or absent. The Upper Bhanders which consist of sandstones, sometimes thin-bedded and sometimes massive, are 195 metres thick. They form the Bhander hills lying to the north-west of the Hiran river in the Jabalpur tahsil and cover a large area in the western portion of the Murwara tahsil.

5. **Gondwana system.**—The Jabalpur series of the Gondwana system consists of thick, soft, yellow, brown or white sandstones passing up into a conspicuously white or pale-tinied succession of fire clays and soft shales with subordinate bands of sandstones. The thickness of these formations no where exceeds 300 metres. These rocks are flat-lying and rest unconformably on the Archaeans and crop out as an irregular broken strip running past Jabalpur in a north-east direction. In the bore-well at Marhatal Gondwana rocks were met with below the alluvium. The dip of the rocks is usually small. In a well in the old jail compound, a seam of coal was encountered at a depth of 21 metres at or near the base of the series. A small exposure of coal is again seen in the Narmada river-course where it can be seen resting upon a steep edge of the Archaeans. A seam of inferior coal is found in the exposure of this formation at Lameta Ghat. Plant fossils, ferns, cycads and confires found in this formation indicate a Jurassic age.

6. **Lameta beds.**—This group consists of limestones, sandstones and clays deposited in fresh water. These rocks lie unconformably on the older formation and are found usually underlying the Deccan traps. The limestones include a cherty type containing lumps of chert and jasper. Near Jabalpur and at many other localities, clear evidences have been obtained that the Lametas were subjected to denudation before the eruption of the lavas. They form a thin fringe along the north-west edge of the Deccan trap formation and the greatest thickness exposed is 45 metres, which is seen in the Chhota Simla hills about 3 kilometres east-north-east of Jabalpur railway

station. Remains of a large *dinosaur* reptile, *titanosaurus indicus*, have been found from rocks of this group near Jabalpur. Fresh water *unionidae* have been recorded in the Lameta scrap north of Amakhoh, Matley[1] finds that the formation is separated into five zones and that there is a conformable succession from the Jabalpur series through the Lametas to the Deccan trap. A number of parallel strike-faults affecting the Lametas as well as the overlying Deccan traps have been detected.

7. **Deccan trap.**—This is the great formation of horizontally bedded basaltic lavas that is found principally along the south-east border, approaching very close to Jabalpur town. The geodic cavities in the traps contain agate, jasper and many varieties of zeolites. The agates and jasper are often found as pebbles in the bed of the Narmada river and are cut and polished by the local lapidaries into ornamental articles of some value.

8. **Laterite.**—Most of the laterite masses in Jabalpur are spread over the low undulating country between the Bhitrigarh range of hills to the south and ridges of Kaimur and Bhander formations to the north. Laterite forms irregular patches with a roughly horizontal base resting on the Bijawar and lower Vindhyan rocks and to a less extent on the upper Vindhyan rocks and Gondwana formations. It is most abundant in the Murwara tahsil, but it is commonly found in the Sihora tahsil. At Katni thin seams of laterite are found interbedded with feruginous sandstone. Deposits of high grade bauxite, different types of clays and minor iron-ore occurrences are associated with the laterite.

9. **Pleistocene.**—A considerable portion of the south-west corner of the district is occupied by the eastern end of the great alluvial plain of the Narmada river. These beds are comprised of a lower group of Pleistocene age and an upper group of Recent formation. The Pleistocene beds contain remains of mammals whereas the Recent beds are devoid of them.

The Pleistocene beds are composed chiefly of stiff reddish, brownish or yellow clay containing abundance of kankar and numerous pisolitic iron-oxide granules. They are usually separated from the underlying rocks by a small thickness of sandy and conglomeratic beds; where this lower alluvium has not suffered too extensive denudation prior to the deposition of the upper alluvium, the clays are

1 H. H. Hayden, General report of the Geological Survey of India for the year 1919, Records of the Geological Survey of India, Vol. LI, 1921.

usually overlain by small thickness of sandy and gravelly beds. It is in the last named beds that the bone-remains are usually found that are so characteristic of this series. These remains are of mammals or reptiles, some of which are identical with the species now living in the Narmada valley. Teeth and bones of *Elephas*, *Bos*, *Equns* and *Triony* are found at Dartikachar, a few kilometres from Jhansi Ghat. Remains of ruminants Hippopotamus (*Tetraprodtodon*) are found in a small patch of sand and conglomerate below Kaimori on the Hiran river.

10. **Recent.**—Under this division come the soils formed by the surface decomposition and alteration of the underlying formations, and the upper division of the Narmada alluvium. The soils are classified under: *Kabar* I, *Kabar* II, *Mund* I, *Mund* II, *Domatta Sehra*, *Patarna*, *Bhatua*, *Barra* and *Kachhar*.

ECONOMIC MINERALS

There is probably no other District in Madhya Pradesh with such variety of minerals of possible economic value as the Jabalpur District and at various times a considerable amount of attention has been devoted to test the economic value of the occurrences particularly those of iron, manganese and copper-ores. The following is a list of mineral occurrences recorded in the District :—

Antimony and Arsenic.—The copper-ores collected from Imalia gave very small percentages of antimony and arsenic.

Barytes.—Barytes is associated with lead and copper ores occurring about 3 kilometres north of Sleemanabad railway station. A consignment sent to Calcutta about the year 1901 was reported to be a poor quality. At Sunehri pure and white baryte veins occur but they are too small. This occurrence was prospected by Cook & Co. of Katni. Other occurrences are at Deori, Matai and Sejha.

Bauxite.—The existence in large proportions of alumina in certain laterites in Madhya Pradesh was first brought to notice by Mallet[1] in the course of his description of the iron-ores and other minerals in this District. He mentions a pisolitic variety of laterite containing a high percentage of alumina, occurring abundantly in the hills south of Murwara.

The bauxite and aluminous laterite occur as segregations in the thicker cappings of Laterite which form low mounds and hillocks. The ore occurs mostly as detatched congregations of boulders.

1. F. R Mallet On pyrolusite, with psilomelance occurring at Gosalpur, Jabalpur District, in Rec Geological Survey of India XII, 1879.

Almost all the known deposits of bauxite in Jabalpur District are located in three areas, namely, Katni, Niwar and Dundi, and the minimum reserves in all these areas with alumina above 45 per cent but mostly about 50 per cent are estimated at about 5,40,000 tonnes in the year 1949. A revaluation[1] carried out in the Katni-Niwar area of Jabalpur District in 1956 at the request of the Aluminium Committee of the Central Government showed at least 4.6 million tonnes of high-grade bauxite. Some of these deposits are of very high grade and can be used in chemical industries.

The best bauxite deposits are near Katni, where in the Tikuri area south of the town, bounded by the Central Railway track to the east and the wooded ridge on the west, about 2,00,000 tonnes of creamy white bauxite with over 60 per cent alunina are estimated. On the Murwara Hill, south of Murwara, about 60,000 tonnes of bauxites are estimated and analysis results available for this locality show alumina 45 to 59 per cent, silica mostly below 8 per cent, ferric-oxide mostly below 7 per cent and titania mostly between 2.7 to 7 per cent. Other localities where minor bauxite deposits occur are the Flagstaff Hill, Pandarwara, and the area immediately south of Katni.

In the area east of Niwar railway station bauxite deposits are found at Tikaria, Khajuri and Tharka (Dharka). Among these the deposits at Tikaria are the best, but the good quality ore there is largely worked out. Most of the ore has alumina content between 53 and 59 per cent and the available quality was estimated at about 1,20,000 tonnes. The ore at Khajuri and Tharka contain 50 to 59 per cent alumina, and the reserves estimated were 45,000 tonnes and a few thousand, respectively.

Near Dundi a few good segregations of bauxite are found in small erratic capping laterite. A total of about 10,000 tonnes of bauxite were estimated from four localities, namely, Mihguwan, Hathai, Dhangawan and Chapra. The ores contain 46 to 59 per cent alumina, 1.5 to 5.8 per cent silica, 3.6 to 16.8 per cent ferric-oxide and 5.8 to 8.6 per cent titania.

Building stones.—The pink porphyritic granites near Jabalpur form excellent ornamental stones when polished. Some of the limestones of the Bijawars are dolomitic and grade into fine-grained dolomitic marbles. The limestones of the Marble Rocks are pure white and saccharoidal but have not been worked to any extent. A

1. The Mineral Wealth of Madhya Pradesh, Vol. I, No. 4.

block from here was sent to the Paris Exhibition in 1865 and was pronounced to be equal to Italian Marble. The Bhander limestones are extensively quarried at Katni where the best variety occurs in thin beds aggregating three metres in thickness. The limestones of the Lower Vindhyans, north of Murwara, may form some good building materials. The sandstone of the Gondwana system is a freestone, dressing well under a chisel. The stone locally known as Kattunga stone is much valued and extensively used as building material.

Clays.—Several types of clays are available in this District and they are used for manufacture of fire-bricks, tiles, pipes, pottery, etc. The alluvial clays are used for brick manufacture. Mallet[1] has described the occurence of white clays near Jabalpur where they are inter-stratified with the upper Gondwana sandstones. Good quality fire-clays occur in the Chhota Simla hill at Jabalpur, where the maximum thickness of the clay bed is 15 metres. Reserves of fireclay on the Patbabu ridge east of Jabalpur city are estimated at about 56 million tonnes. An additional reserve of 2.3 million tonnes is estimated from Near Polipathar, Bhaganwara, Jharela and Mohagawan. Clays suitable for pottery and refractories are also found at Khitauli, Bijbuja, Saliya, Hardua and other places. Crookshank[2] records that the Jabalpur fireclays are lower in iron and carbonaceous matter than the clays of Bengal and Bihar and have proved to be quite suitable for making glass furnaces of both the pot and tank types. The refractoriness of the clay could be improved by the addition of kaoline and bauxite.

Coal.—A discovery of coal at Lameta Ghat was reported by Spillsbury[3] in 1839. According to Mallet[4] the seam is nearly a metre thick of which 0.68 metre is coal. The quality is poor, a picked sample yielding carbon 37.28, volatiles 30.28, water 12.28, and ash 20.16 per cent. It was being quarried for supply to brick-burning works at Jabalpur. Reported occurrences of coal in Katni tahsil were investigated by the Department of Geology and Mining[5], Madhya Pradesh in 1958 and found too thin. Both at the Sanoobah *nala* and the Mahanadi river only a thin band of coal, one inch thick at places, occurs.

1. F. R. Mallet, On the iron ores and subsidiary materials for the manufacture of iron in the north-eastern part of the Jabalpur district, Rec Geological Survey of India Vol. XVI, 1883.
2. H. Crookshank, Clay, Rec. Geol Surv. Ind. LXXVI, Bulletin No. 8, 1941.
3. G. G. Spillsbury, Geological Section across the valley of the Nerbudda from Tendukheri to Bittoul, Jour. As. Society of Bengal, III, 1839.
4. F. R. Mallet, op. cit.
5. Annual Report of the Department of Geology and Mining, 1958, Govt. of M. P., Bhopal, p. 5.

Copper.—Occurrence of copper and lead-ores near Sleemanabad were discovered in 1870 by Olpherts[1] and Hughes[2]. The spot was visited by Hughes in the same year. Although he reported the indication to be unpromising, he recommended some further investigation for arriving at a definite conclusion. Dutt of Jabalpur was responsible for opening up the lodes for the first time. Dunstone[3] suggested the sinking of shaft with cross cuts in order to prove the lodes thoroughly. Dutt was subsequently joined by Messers Burn and Co., and prospecting of the occurrence was continued between 1904 and 1908. Numerous pits and trenches were excavated and bore-holes taken to depths varying from 18 to 24 metres. These operations proved that the lodes were neither large nor persistent enough to warrant mining. No further prospecting was undertaken until 1937, when the Jabalpur Chemical Co. Ltd., commenced fresh operations. According to the prospectus of the company, the old mines at Sleemanabad contain at least 100,000 tonnes of copper-ore with an average of 4 per cent copper. The ore is said to carry, on an average, 20 oz. of silver and 1.7 cwts. of gold per ton of ore.

Indications of mineralisation are found in a strip of country, 20 kilometres long and 5 kilometres broad, around Sleemanabad and Niwar. The ore minerals are contained in veins of altered quartz prophyry traversing dolomitic limestone of Bijawar formations. So far metalliferous veins have been found at only a few spots but it is not unlikely that veins may be found over a considerable area. The localities in Sleemanabad-Niwar area worth recording for indications of copper and lead are Imalia, Pondi, Sunehra, Amgawan and Nawalia. At Imalia the lodes vary in strike between N-S to NW-SSE and dip at high angles between west and south-west and range in width between 15 cms., and 4 metres at the surface but their width at depth is not known. The main vein 'Eric Lode' is said to have been followed to a depth of 24 metres.

1. D. La Touche, A bibliography of Indian Geology and Physical Geography with an annotated index of minerals of economic value, Part I B, 1917.
2. T. W. H. Hughes, Note on the lead ore at Slimanabad, Jabalpur District, Central Provinces, Rec Geol. Surv. India, III.
3. B. C. Roy, The copper lodes of Sleemanabad-Niwar area, Jabalpur District, Central Provinces.

Dolomite.—Ample supply of dolomite suitable for metallurgical purposes is available at many localities among the Bijawar formation as at Bheraghat, near Sleemanabad, etc. Dolomite found in the neighbourhood of Sleemanabad is of somewhat impure variety.

Felspar.—Mallet[1] discusses the supplies of felspar available in this District for pottery purposes. According to him the best locality is near Singrampur, three kilometres east of Silonda. The felspar is in a coarse pegmatite. Soda-felspars are recorded at Lametaghat. The deposits of sodium felspar in Jabalpur District are also at Lametaghat.

Flint.—In the Narmada river near Bheraghat there are a few small areas containing appreciable flint pebbles; but they are too angular to be of any use for ball-mills.

Flourite.—Minute crystals of flourite have been detected by Fermor[2] in a vein of altered quartz porphyry carrying copper and lead-ores at Sleemanabad. From Rupaund the occurrences can be traced along Bhamnar and Dalta *nala* to Malhan, a distance of five to six miles. At Malhan flourite occurs in two veins. The mineral is purple, pale pink or green and the veins are not more than three to four centimetres across. As far as present information (1965) goes, the amount of flourite available is too small to be of commercial importance.

Glass sands.—Sands suitable for manufacture of glass are available in the Lametaghat area. There are two beds of sand known as "Upper Sands" and "Green Sand.". The green sand forms the lowest zone.

Fuller's Earth.—A considerable amount of fuller's earth is recorded as having been raised at Katni where it occurs in Lower Vindhyan rocks.

Gold.—Gold washings have been carried on in parts of the District at various times. Small quantities of gold have been found in the conglomerates of the Gosalpur sub-stage of the Bijawar formations; the metal also occurs in small quantities in the quartz veins of the area. The metalliferous lodes in Sleemanabad have been found to contain a certain proportion of gold varying from insignificant to 15 cwts. per ton.

1. F. R. Mallet, op. cit.
2. Record Geological Survey of India, XXXIII, 1906, pp. 62-64.

The conglomerates of the Bijawars south-east of Sleemanabad were prospected for gold by the Bauxite and Chemical Development Syndicate Ltd. The samples assessed 0·2 to 0·8 cwts of gold per tonne. Veins of blue quartz in the area, however, gave gold values upto 3 to 4 cwts per tonne. They are sparsely and sporadically distributed and are not likely to yield commercially workable quantities of ore.

Iron.—The iron-ores of Jabalpur are confined to the north-eastern portion of the District. They are developed in a belt of the Bijawar rocks surveyed in 1871 by Hacket[1] who gave the name of 'Lora' group to the principal iron-bearing beds. The ores were subsequently classified as (1) Bijawar ores, consisting mainly of micaceous, siliceous and manganiferous haematite with some limonite and (2) Lateritic ore consisting mainly of pissolitic limonite with a small proportion of haematite. To these Fermor[2] adds a third of lateritoid group formed by secondary replacement of the Bijawar rocks. The Bijawar ores are chiefly developed in the pargana of Khambi, to the east and southeast of Sihora, and the lateritic ores in the 'pargana' of Bijairaghogarh near Katni.

The following are the principal iron-ore localities mentioned: Agaria, Bijori, Dharmpura–Gosalpur, Ghogra, Imalia, Jauli, Kanhwara hills, Lora hills, Saroli, Sihora- Bhadora, Jhiri, Kalwara, Murwara, Pilongi, Pirehta, Kantari and Gangai.

Mallet[3] says, "From time immemorial the Jabalpur District held an important place amongst those centres where the smelting of iron has been carried on in the native method. Plentiful ores, extensive jungles for the supply of charcoal and proximity to thickly populated alluvial tracts of the country, combined to give Jabalpur a commanding position in the old days before railways had brought the native hearths into an unequalled struggle with the blast-furnaces of England. Even now iron is made on what from the native point of view, must be considered a large scale, numerous furnaces being scattered over the iron-bearing portions of the District."

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1. T Oldman, Annual Report of the Geological Survey of India and of the Geological Museum for 1871, Record Geological Survey of India, Vol. V. 1872.
2. Jubbulpore District Gazetteer Vol. A., 1907.
3. F. R. Mallet, Op. cit.

Some of the localities where native industry is reported to have flourished in the District are Jauli, where schistose haematites were smelted, and Ghugra, east of Sihora, where manganiferous iron-ore was smelted for production of superior brand of steely iron known locally as *Kheri*. The number of furnaces at work was 72 in 1906 and 47 in 1907. The native methods of smelting have been described by Bose[1], Holes[2], and Wynne[3]. Fernandez[4] has given an account of an experiment in iron smelting with a native furnace carried out during the rains and with the addition of a flux. The facility of carrying on the operations throughout the year was demonstrated, but it is said that the use of a flux did not increase the output of iron. Murwara near Katni was recommended by Mallet[5] as a site for the establishment of iron works.

Martin and Louis[6] opened up several of the iron deposits about the year 1903, on behalf of Sir Ernest Gassel, to see if it was possible to start an iron smelting industry on modern lines in this area. They came to the conclusion that nowhere in this District there were deposits of ore that could be considered workable from the point of view of the modern iron smelter, the quantities of ore revealed by the prospect operations being much less than Mallet believed to exist. Most of the ore is in the form of soft micaceous haematite which is physically unsuitable for use in a blast-furnace; generally also the ores contain a proportion of phosphorous too high for acid Bessemer steel. The reserves of iron ore available in the District are estimated at 49 million tons.

Although the prospect work shows that deposits, on their own, cannot support a modern blast furnace, owing to the comparatively small size of the deposits and the fact that all of them are not of the same class of ore, yet they are potentially important as supplementary source for iron works based on more potential iorn-ore deposits in India or for export.

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1. P N Bose, The manganese, iron and manganese ores of Jabalpur, Record Geological Survey of India, Vol XXI, 1888.
2. R. S Holes, Letters on the iron industry in the Jabalpur district, Central Provinces Agriculture Ledger V, No 17 (1898), R S Holes, Agriculture Ledger VII, No 11 (1909)
3. F. R Wynne, Native methods of smelting and manufacturing iron in Jabalpur, Central Provinces, India, Trans Ins. Min Eng XXVI (1904).
4. E E Fernandez, Note on the iron industry in the Central Provinces, Agriculture Ledger VII, No. 14 (1900).
5. F. R Mallet, Op. cit.
6. E E Martin and H Louis, On iron ores in the Jabalpur district Central Provinces, Agri. Ledger XI, No. 3 (1904).

Lead.—The metalliferous lodes at Imalia north of Sleemanabad contain a certain proportion of galena. Development work on these lodes has not proved remunerative. Galena is also found at 1.2 kilometres SSE., of Sleemanabad. The mineral is sparsely distributed in the rock and was considered to be of no value.

Limestone.—The most important limestone in this District is the Katni limestone belonging to the Rohtas stage of the lower Vindhyans. It is quarried extensively around Katni for lime burning. The distribution of limestone is given by Mallet[1] and an analysis by him showed only 1.79 per cent insoluble residue. Hence this limestone would be of value for metallurgical purposes as a flux for lime-burning. The Katni Cement and Industrial Co. Ltd., works a quarry of Vindhyan limestone at Tikuri. Almost all the limestone in this quarry is of good quality with 80 to 96 per cent of calcium carbonate.

About 65 per cent of the State's output of limestone is produced in this District. Very large reserves of high grade limestone occur along the foot of the Kaimur range, along a 30 kilometre long belt extending towards north-east from Kachhagawan which is 19 Kilometres NNE of Katni. This belt continues into Satna district and beyond. Reserves of good quality limestone occur in the vicinity of the quarries between Kachhagawan and Barari a distance of 11 kilometres. These deposits, approximately 18 to 20 metres thick, were estimated to be about 8 million tons in 1956. The limestone beds are low-dipping but locally they are thrown into a symmetrical folds with the flatter limbs dipping towards NNW.

Limestone of a fine-grained compact nature, suitable for the manufacture of calcium carbide, is recorded at the excavations of T. C. Bazan and Mohansing Jagan Prasad at Murwara, N. M. Dubes at Bistara, and Ramchandra Badriprasad at Amehata. The limestone from the excavations at Murwara, Tikuria and Bistara shows 47 to 51 per cent calcium and is free from Magnesium.

Mallet[2] also describes that an unlimited supply of limestone is obtainable from the Lameta formation. An average sample taken near Jabalpur showed 21 to 38 per cent insoluble residue. The limestone of the Lametas is worked at Jabalpur on a small scale for lime.

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1. F. R. Mallet, op. cit.

2. *Ibid.*

Manganese.—The existence of manganese-ore deposits at Gosalpur was first brought to notice by Olpherts[1] in 1875. In 1879 Mallet[2] published an analysis of the ore with a brief note by Medlicott on its mode of occurrence, and in another paper discussed the lateritic origin of the ore. The distribution, geology and origin of the ores were studied by Jones and Bose[3]. The deposits are associated with salty shales, band haematite—quartzites and quartzites belonging to the Lora stage of the Bijawar series. The manganese bearing area occupied by these rocks forms a synclinal basin about 32 kilometres in length from NE to SW and from 5 to 8 kilometres in width extending from the Lora range NE of Sihora, to Markasan. The ores are composed of psilomelane, and phrolusite. Manganiferous haematite ore is also of common occurrence. The deposits peter out at depth and reserves are moderate when compared to other manganese deposits in India. The principal deposits are at Kasai hill, Darshani, Mansakar, Ghogra, Sakri, Bhataden, Gosalpura, Dharampura and Nonsar.

Ochre.—Semi ochreous haematite occurring at Jauli has been quarried for many years by Messrs Olpherts and Co., for the manufacture of paint. Yellow ochre is found in the laterites near Katni.

Quartz—Mallet[4] enumerates the different varieties of silica found in this District that might be used in the manufacture of pottery and glass. These comprise chalcedony from the Deccan trap, chert from the Lameta limestones, vein quartz from the Archaean, sandstones and derived quartz sand from the Jabalpur series of rocks.

Road Metal.—Many of the rocks found in this district are suitable for road metal. but perhaps the most suitable are the basalts of the Deccan traps, some of the gneisses, granites, impure dolomites and limestones.

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1. D. La Touche, Op cit.

2. F. R. Mallet. On pyrolusite on psilomelane occurring at Gosalpur, Jabalpur District, Rec Geol. Sur. India XII, 1879, F. R. Mallet, On laterite and other manganese ore occurring at Gosalpur, Jabalpur District, Rec. Geol. Sur. Ind. XVI, 1883.

3 P. N. Bose, The Manganese, iron and Manganese ores of Jabalpur, Rec Geol. Sur Ind XXI, 1888. P N Bose, The Manganiferous iron and manganese ores of Jabalpur Rec Geol Sur Ind. XXII, 1889.

4 F R Mallet, On some of the materials for pottery obtainable in the neighbourhood of Jabalpur and of Umaria, Rec Geol. Sur Ind XXII, 1889.

Semi-Precious Stones—In the bed of the Narmada river at Bheraghat and other places many of the pebbles consist of geodes derived from the Deccan trap formation. They comprise all varieties of chalcedony and jasper such as agate, mess agate, carnelian, onyx and heliotrope as well as crystal and amethyst. These are collected by the local lapidaries, cut and polished into ornamental articles of considerable value, varying from beads and buttons to brooches, paper-knives and weights. The skill of these men is considerable and the polish imparted to the agates is as high as could be achieved with the aid of machinery. The chief abrasive materials used are the corundum of Pipra and agate powder.

Silver.—This is found in both the copper and lead ores of Sleemanabad. The tetrahedrite of Imalia is particularly rich, often containing 100 to 200 oz. of silver per tonne of ore. The lead ore 1.2 kilometres SSE of Sleemanabad yielded 19 oz. of silver per tonne.

Steatite.—The occurrence of beds of talcose schists and steatite north of the Narmada adjacent to the Marble Rocks was recorded by Medlicott[1] in 1860. Since then presence of this mineral has been recorded at Lalpur, Dundara. Gawari, Bheraghat, Rithori, Khamaria, Bhaganwara, Manhera, Bhijhota, Uchera, Tedki, Bhatgawan, Deorihatai and Kodo The occurrence at Bheraghat near the Marble Rocks is the best known. The steatite forms pockets in the dolomites of the Narmada gorge and is of various colours from white to pale green. A sample from this locality examined by Mallet[2] was white with pale reddish blotches and was somewhat schistose. It cuts very freely into slices along the foliation but with difficulty across it. The deposits are now being worked at Bheraghat, Gawari and Lalpur.

Water.—Irrigation in this District is from a large number of wells and tanks; and seldom from rivers. Government irrigation work was started in 1901 by the construction of embankments on the bed of the streams.

The Deccan trap, Lameta beds and the Crystalline rocks are too impervious to provide the requisite amount of water. A survey of underground water has not been made in this District in

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1. J. G. Medlicott, On the geological structure of the central portion of the Nerbudda district, Mem. Geol. Sur. Ind. Vol, II, 1860.

2. F. R. Mallet, Note on Indian steatite. Rec. Geol. Sur. Ind. Vol. XXII, 1889.

the recent years and the reports received from the Geological Survey of India and the Agriculture Department of Madhya Pradesh are based on the general observations. The Jabalpur group of sandstones that is below the alluvium is good aquifer from which it is possible to get the required amount of water. This sandstone, though not thick, is known to bear water. The prospects of tapping this water by wells depend on the area of the outcrop, its thickness and the absence of faults which may allow any considerable proportion of water to escape. It is doubtful whether artesian conditions would be met with and some mechanical means can be adopted to obtain the water on a large scale. To ascertain the facts bore-wells may have to be taken to the basement of the system of rocks.

EARTH-QUAKE

The District of Jabalpur lies in a region which is seismically stable. Except for the Rewa earthquake of 2nd June, 1927 with its epicentre near Latitude 24° N., and Longitude 82·30 E. no other important shock having origin in the Vindhyachal range has been reported in the recent past. Sometimes major earthquakes originating in the Himalayan boundary fault zone have been known to affect Jabalpur. During the Bihar-Nepal earthquake of 15th January, 1934, it was reported that the District Court building of Jabalpur was slightly cracked. Earthquakes of very small magnitude are on a few occasions reported from this area, but such earthquakes do not normally cause any damage to engineering structures. A few of the earthquakes which were either felt at Jabalpur or have caused minor damage to structures in the District are listed below:—

S. N.	Year of the Earthquake	Remarks
1.	12th June, 1897 (Assam Earthquake)	Felt.
2.	2nd June, 1927 (Rewa Earthquake)	Caused minor damage.
3.	15th January, 1934 (Bihar-Nepal Earthquake)	—do—
4.	14th March, 1938 (Satpura Earthquake)	Felt.
5.	17th January, 1946 (Local shock)	Felt.
6.	25th August, 1957 (Epic: Lat. 22 N Long. 80 E)	Felt (Slight shock)

FLORA

Forests occur on the slopes of the hills and all over the rugged country in the southern, eastern and south-eastern parts of the District. The lowlands, the inter-mountain valleys and the flat tops of plateaus where the soil cover is thick have long been cleared, rather indiscriminately, of forests. They cover 903.49 sq. miles (2349.07 Sq. Km.) or a little less than a quarter of the total area of the District. Nearly all the forests are under the management of the State Forest Department. Of the total, 330.79 sq. miles (36.62 per cent) are Reserved forests and 572.70 sq. miles (63.38 per cent) are Protected forests. Reserved and Protected forests are Governmnt forests of which the former are well demarcated and better managed. Concessions or public right are denied in the Reserved forests whereas *Niatar* rights are allowed in the Protected forests with the permission of the Forest Department.

The forests of Jabalpur District, according to Champion's broad classification are Dry Tropical forests. The trees occurring commonly almost in every block of Forests in the District are *Saj* (*Terminalia tomentosa*), *dhaora* (*Anogeissus latifolia*), *tendu* (*Diospyros melanoxylon*), *lendia* (*Legerstroemia parvilora*), *kaii* (*Saccopetalum tomentosum*), *bija* (*Pterocarpus marsupium*), *mahua* (*Madhuca latifolia*) also called *Bassia latifolia*, *dhobin*, (*Dalbergia paniculata*), *jamrasi* (*Eleodendron glaucum*), *haldu* (*Adina cordifolia*) and *kalam* or *mundhia* (*Stephegyne parvifolia*) while *bhilwa* (*Semecarpus anacardium*), *amaltas* (*Cassia fistula*), *palas* (*Butea frondosa*) and *kakai* (*Flacourtia romantchi*) are also common in the underwood *Kharasi* or *siharu* (*Nyctanthes arbortristis*). *karonda* (*Carissa spp*), *julbuli* or *dhawai* (*Woodfordia floribunda*) and *marorphal* (*Helicteris isora*) are the common undergrowth of the District. Among the grasses *ghonal* or *gunriar* (*Anthistiria ciliata*), *chhir* (*Imperata arundinacea*) and *bhurbhusi* (*Fragrostis tenella*) occur throughout the District The climbers occurring in all types of forests are *mahul* (*Bauhinia vahli*), *palas bel* (*Butea superba*), or *dudhe* (*Cryptolepis bunchanani*), *ramdaton* (*Smilax macrophylla*) and *makor* or *ironi* (*Zyzyphus oenoplia*).

These forests are divided into the following two classes—

(a) Northern tropical dry deciduous forest (Group 4 B)

(b) Southern tropical dry deciduous forest (Group 4 A)

Important sub-classes are—

(i) The Bamboo forests and

(ii) The grass-lands.

Bamboo forests and the grass lands occur in all the above types. Bamboos mainly occupy areas where top canopy is light and once they have established themselves it is very difficult to eradicate them. Grass-lands, ecologically are not stable climax but they represent a retrogressive state which is stabilised by such inhibitory factors as heavy cuttings, annual fires and occasional frosts.

Bamboo forests and grass-lands are varied in nature, resulting mainly from biotic factors, and not extensive enough. As such, these are described with the main types.

(a) Northern tropical dry deciduous forests (Champion's group 4 B)

The forests are divided into two groups, *viz.*, the North Indian Dry Mixed Deciduous forests (Champion's group 4 B, C 2) and the Dry Sal forests (Champion's group 4 B, C 1). These forests are not easily distinguished from the Southern Dry Mixed Deciduous forests because they lie in the transition zone separating Northern and Southern Dry Deciduous forests. These forests are confined to the level country in Khitauli area east of the Mahanadi in Murwara tahsil and, to some extent, to the undulating area along the western bank of the Mahanadi in Sihora. There is little difference in the composition of the two sub-types except that the presence of *Sal* in the overwood is low or nil in the North Indian Dry Mixed Deciduous forests. In the Dry Sal forests the Sal stands above 20 per cent to almost pure stock, but patches of pure stock are limited and small. The Northern Dry Mixed forests are usually confined to comparatively dry and steep hill slopes while Dry Sal forests occur in the moist well-drained gently sloping areas. The chief species occurring in the Northern Tropical Dry Deciduous forests (Champion's group 4 B) along with other common species are:—

Trees.— *Gunja* (*Lannea grandis*), *salai* (*Boswellia serrata*), *koha* *Terminalia arjuna*) near nala banks, *harra* (*Terminalia chebula*), *chichwa* (*Albizzia odortissima*), *siris* or *kala siris* (*Albizia lebek*) and *Jamun* (*Euginia jambolana*).

Underwood.—*Baranga* (*Kydia calycina*), *achar* (*Buchanania lanjan*), *aonla* (*Emblica officinalis*), *rohan* (*Soymida febrifuga*) *bel* (*Aegle marmelos*), *tinsa* (*Ougeinnia dalbergioides*), *dhaman* (*Grewia tiliafolia*), *papra* (*Gardenia latifolia*), *pakar* (*Ficus infectoria*), *medsing* (*Dolichandrone falcata*), *kasai* (*Bridelia retusa*), *amta* (*Bauhinia variegata*). *ghont* (*Ziryphus xylopyra*), *mainphal* (*Randin dumetorum*).

Under Growth.—*Chhind* (*phoenix acahlis*), *neel* (*Indigofera spp*). *baibirang* (*Embelia retusta*), *gursukri* (*Grewia hirsuta*), *bhandar* (*Colebrookia oppositifolia*). *banrakar* (*Flemingia semialata*), *shatoria* (*Aspourangus recemosus*), *chipti* (*Beamodium spp.,*) *kuda* or *indrajava* (*Holarrahena anti-dysenterica*).

Grasses.—*Mushan* or *musel* (*Iseilema laxum*), *khas* (*Veliveria zizanioides*), *dub* (*Cynodon dactylon*), *bhabar* or *babai* (*Eulatiopsis binata*).

Climbers.—*Nasbel* (*Spatholobus roxburghii*).

Sal is found on a variety of geological formations, (except the Deccan Trap) which occur in the Jabalpur District. The geographical factors affecting the distribution of this tree, which is here near its western limit in peninsular region, appears to be the porous but hydroscopic Gondwana earthy sandstone, and the amount of rainfall, about 50 to 55 inches. In general the occasional and sudden transition from one quality class to another, from *Sal* forest to Mixed forest is probably due to local soil varieties.

Sal has tremendous power of self propagation. In the *Sal* forests of the District, regeneration is generally very good and wherever the canopy of taller trees is open or discontinuous there is a dense and rapid growth of younger trees. *Sal* is also spreading into the adjoining mixed forests. It is noticed that a large percentage of the sal trees is hollow and unsound. This is mostly due to the damage caused by frosts and fires to the trees in the early part of their life.

Southern Tropical dry deciduous forests (Champion's Group 4-A). These forests are divided into two distinct groups.

(b-i) The Dry Teak forests (Champion's group 4 A-C1)

(b-ii) The South Indian Dry Mixed Decideous forests (Champion's group 4 A-C2).

(i) **The Teak forests.**—Teak is the chief species and forms from 20 per cent to 80 per cent of the crop which occasionally reaches 100 per cent to form pure patches in these forests. Due to heavy selective cutting the overwood teak in Protected forests is scattered and most of it is malformed. The density of underwood is also poor in the protected forests. Thus, the bulk of top storey is constituted by less economic species like *salai* (*Boswellia serrata*), *gunja* (*Lennea grandis*), *dhoban* (*Dalbergia paniculata*), etc. While the underwood in easily accessible areas has been reduced to straggling bushy growth, a few well preserved patches of mature teak occur in the interior areas. Bamboos have also been exploited unsystematically except on hill slopes where they are luxuriant. In the Sihora tahsil of Jabalpur District teak forest approach the northern limit of natural teak in India. In this District, they are confined to the Trap and to some extent, the Vindhyan sandstone areas. In the Reserved forests, the teak forests occur in three groups. The first group consists of Patna, Kundwara, Tonri, Pondi, Pararia and Lower Gaur Reserved forests in the Trap area from Jabalpur in the west to Labhera nullah in the east. The second group consists of Saliwara, Hulki, Karanpathar, Lohri, Tigra and Kulon Reserved forests all lying south of the Narmada, and the third group of Umarpani Reserved forest in the Mahanadi valley. The best teak forests are in Kundwara and Bargi ranges.

Teak forests of lesser importance also occur in Darauli, Chhatri and Sakri, West Chaurai and Samna Reserved Forests, in two scattered patches on Lora hill and the hills near Sleemanabad.

Bamboo generally forms an understorey, the prevailing species being *Dendrocalamus strictus*. Occasionally *Bamboosa arundinacea* is found on alluvial flats along the rivers.

The chief species occurring in the Dry Teak forests (Champion's 4 A. Cl), along with the common species are:—

Trees.—*Gunja* (*Lannea grandis*), *salai* (*Boswellia serrata*), *koha* (*Terminalia arjuna*), *kulu* (*Sterculia urens*), *khamer or siwan* (*Gmelina arborea*), *padar* (*Stereospermum suavelens*), *chhota padar* (*Stereospermum chelenoides*), *achar* (*Buchanania lanzan*), *aonla* (*Emblica officinalis*), *kosai* (*Bridelia retusa*), *tinsa* (*Ougeinia delbergioides*), *dhaman* (*Grewia tiliefolia*), *rohan* (*Soymida febrifuga*), *shisham* (*Dalbergia latifolia*), *baranga* (*Kydia calycina*), *bhilwa* (*Semicarpus anacardium*), *amaltas* (*Cassia fistula*), *papra* (*Gordenialatifolia*), *palas* (*Butea frondosa*) and *kakai* (*Flacortia ramontchi*).

Underwood.—*Baranga* (*Kydia calycina*), *achar* (*Buchanania lanjan*), *aonla* (*Emblica officinalis*), *rohan* (*Soymida febrifuga*), *tinsa* (*Ougeinia delbergioides*), *dhaman* (*Grewia tiliafolia*), *papra* (*Gardenia latifolia*), *kasai* (*Bridelia retusa*).

Undergrowth.—*Neel* (*Indigofera spp.*), *kuda* or *indrajava* (*Holarrahena anti-dysenterica*), *kaodila* or *karil* (*Petalidium borleriodes*), *strabilanthes spp.*, *rusa* (*Adhatoda vasica*), *akol* (*Alangium lamarokii*), *tarota* (*Cassia tora*), *bharangmul* (*Clerodendron serratum*), *nirgundi* (*Vitex negundo*).

Grasses.—*Kushal* (*Heteropogan cantartus*).

Climbers.—*Gunja* (*Abrus precatorius*), *ramna* (*Acacia pennata*).

The quality of teak varies from III* to IV with a few patches of II quality which is found in compartments Nos. 164 and 269 of the Murwara Range and 231 and 243 of the Jabalpur Range. The quality is more conditioned by general coppicing vigour of stools in the protected forests rather than the conventionally recognised factors like soil, aspect, gradient, etc. Steams of seedling origin are rare.

The better quality teak forests are generally dense. The trees are stright, sound and healthy but overmature trees are usually unsound. The forest is uneven-aged, but middle-aged trees predominate with an admixture of young saplings and poles. The proportion of mature trees is usually low.

* Type and Quality	Classes	Avrage height of the dominant trees on maturity
Teak, Sal or Mixed . . .	I	Over 90 feet.
	II	Between 70 to 90 feet.
	III	Between 50 to 70 feet.
	IV-a	Between 40 to 50 feet.
	IV-b	Up to 40 feet.
Bamboo . .	I	Good quality, fully stocked.
	I	Good quality, understocked.
.	II	Medium size, understocked.

Teak seeds germinate well wherever conditions are favourable. The rank growth of grass hampers regeneration in ungrazed areas. Light fires and moderate grazing help germination. Dispersal is progressing by regeneration but is often smothered by weeds. Seedlings take a long time to become established on account of severe fires or the absence of direct exposure to sun. Coppice reproduction is almost always successful. Teak forest of Jabalpur division are inferior to those in the Mandla district in the south-east.

(ii) The Mixed Forests.—(Champion's group 4 A-C2)—The rest of the District carries this type of forest It is found almost over every type of geological formation. The usual quality of these forests is IV (a) and IV (b) with occasional patches of III quality which is found where the soil conditions are more favourable. Such forests are :—

1 All the Reserve Forests along the eastern bank of the Mahanadi in Murwara tahsil.

2. The Reserve Forests of Darodi, Ghugri and Gopalpur west of the Mahanadi in Murwara tahsil.

3. The Reserve Forests except Umarpani along the western bank of the Mahanadi in Sihora and Jabalpur tahsils.

4. All the Reserve Forests in the Trap areas east and south-east of Jabalpur proper, except in Budhari, Chhatri, Pararia, Lower Gaur, and those adjoining Kayalmuhi, and Purwa-Purwai.

5. Lohri, Samra, Tighra and Kulon Reserve Forests south of the Narmada.

6 .Kaina and unreserved forests in the plateu west of Bilhari in Murwara tahsil.

The quality and density depend on soil, slope and other aspects, Moist, fertile sites and moderate slopes with good soil formation support a better quality forest of good density. Steep slopes, exposed towards south-westerly aspects and *dadar* (hill-tops) carry poor and open forests. The forest is often broken with patches of under stocked areas in between. The crop is uneven-aged, the bulk being middle-aged with some scattered old trees. Reproduction from coppice and seed is usually satisfactory, but severe fires and heavy grazing do much damage.

The usual quality of miscellaneous forests (Champion's group 4 A-C2) in the Protected areas is low and is determined mainly by the vigour of the tools. Thus the forests of better quality and density are inaccessible whereas, those in the vicinity of habitations are poor due to excessive cuttings, grazing and fires. The overwood in the protected Forests is mainly composed of less economic species like *salai* (*Boswellia serrata*), *gunja* (*Lannea grandis*), *dhobin* (*Dalbergia paniculata*), etc., or some scattered *mahua* (*Madhuca latifolia*), *harra* (*Terminalia chebula*), etc. The underwood and undergrowth are also of a lower grade. The reproduction is generally satisfactory.

The chief species occurring in the mixed forests (Champion's group 4 A-C2), along with other common species are :—

Trees.—*Haldu* (*Adina cordifolia*), *kalam* or *mundhia* (*Stephegyne parvifolia*), *koha* (*Terminalia arjuna*), *kulu* (*Sterculia urens*), *khamer*, or *siwan* (*Gmelina arborea*), *padar* (*Stereospermum suavelens*), *chhola pader* (*Stereospermum chelenoide*), *achar* (*Buchanania lanzan*), *aonla* (*Emblica officinalis*), *kosai* (*Bridelia retusa*), *tinsa* (*Ougenia delbergioides*), *dhaman* (*Grevia tiliefolia*), *kumbhi* (*Carava arboria*), *safed siris* (*Albizia procera*), *semal* (*Salmalia malabarica*), *gurjan* or *gogal* (*Cochlospermum gossipium*), *amta* (*Bothinia malabarica*), *keolari* (*Bauhinia purpurea*), *kachnar* (*Bauhinia variagata*), etc

In this type teak and *sal* are encroaching upon areas adjoining to their respective forests.

Underwood.—*Bel* (*Aegle marmelos*), *ghont* (*Zizyphus xylopyra*), *safedphetra* (*Gardenia turgida*), *phetra kala* (*Randia uliginosa*), *kuda* (*Holarrhena antidysenterica*), *ber* (*Zizyphus jujuba*).

Bamboos are often luxuriant on hill slopes. *Safedphetra* (*Gardenia turgida*) is also found in the protected forests of this type.

Under growth.—*Chhind* (*Phoenix acahlis*), *baibirang* (*Embelica robusta*), *gurar* (*Milletia curculata*), *kudmudi* (*Gardenia gummifera*), *sitapal* (*Anona squamosa*).

Grass.—*Khas* (*Vetiveria zizaniodes*), *bhabar* or *babai* (*Eulaliopsis binata*), *kushal* (*Heteropogan contartus*), *kans* (*Sachharum spontaneum*).

Climbers.—*Nasbel* (*Spatholobus roxburghii*), *amarbel* (*Cuscuta reflexa*), *ramna* (*Acavia pennata*), *ail* or *chilati* (*Acacia cassia*).

Local Variations.—Some of the local variations marked in the forests of the District are:—

(i) Quartz. mica—schist and gravel on hill slopes support poor open crop of *salai* (*Boswellia serrata*) and its usual associates. Bamboos are sparse and inferior. Grasses are also poor, with chhind (*Phoenix sylvestris*) as undergrowth in frosty and damp areas.

(ii) *Kulu* (*Sterculia urens*) and sometimes thuar (*Euphorbia* spp.) occur on dry rocky slopes and spurs.

(iii) *Koha* (*Terminalia arjuna*) is common along stream banks as also *gular* (*Ficus glomerata*) and *jamun* (*Eugenia jambolana*).

(iv) *Khair* (*Accacia catechu*) occurs in a stunted form in open *dadars* (hill tops and on poor rocky soil. Such areas also carry *ghont* (*Zizyphus xylopyra*) and *ber* (*Zizyphus jujuba*) trees and bushes.

(v) *Palas* (*Butea frondosa*) is found on heavy soils and in understocked areas.

(vi) *Semal* (*Salmalia malabarica*) is found on flat alluvial ground near river banks of Jabalpur forest range and on open grassy lands where it is found scattered.

(vii) *Chhind* (*Phoenix syvestris*) appears as under growth in frosty and damp localities where *banrahar* (*Flemingia semialata*) may also be present.

(viii) The grass-lands are seral and form part of the forest in which they lie. Frosts and fires have so far stabilised this stage Large stretches are met with in the northern half of the District.

The Management of Forests

Reserved Forests.—Forest administration in Madhya Pradesh actually started in 1860 with the appointment of Colonel G. F. Pearson as the first Conservator of Forests for the Saugor and Nerbudda Territories. The management was first taken up in 1862 with the promulgation of the Waste Land Rules under which felling of *teak, sal, saj, shisham* and *bija,* without the sanction of the Deputy Commissioner was forbidden. All other species remained fully accessible on payment of an annual commutation fee. Apart from shifting cultivation which was the main cause of wastage and wanton destruction of valuable forest, the railway which was being opened just then made a heavy demand on the forests in the Khitoli area for the supply of sleepers. These forests were the first to be demarcated and formally preserved in 1867 under the Indian Forests Act, 1865. Heavy fellings, however, continued. In 1871 the *Sal* forests were closed to all cutting and grazing. All other forests were treated as unreserved under the Act of 1865 and continued to be managed by the Deputy Commissioners. They were leased out annually to farmers for unrestricted exploitation except that a few species, such as, *teak, sal, mahua, achar* had to be rigidly respected. The unreserved forests were also notified as reserved in 1879 under section 34 of Indian Forest Act of 1878. Shifting cultivation was stopped with effect from 20th February, 1879.

The forests of Jabalpur District came under the departmental management in 1887 when a licence system was introduced. Under this scheme, a licensee for a certain produce in a specified area could fell the trees of his choice leaving only the rubbish and unsightly pollards. It was realised that such forests were deprived of their potentiality for the regular growth and supply. To maintain this, a working plan was thought to be essential although the first working plan of the Jabalpur Forest Division prepared by some forest rangers in 1894-95 proved to be a failure. The plan prepared by E. E. Fernandez, Conservator of Forests was introduced from 1st November, 1899.

The First Working Plan.—E. E. Fernandez's working plan, introduced on the 1st November 1899, prescribed five working circles coterminous with and named after the five ranges of Murwara, Sihora, Jabalpur, Bargi and Dhanwahi (transferred to Mandla division in 1913). The method of treatment was improvement fellings tending to selection-fellings in the *sal* forests and coppice-with-standards in the areas without teak or *sal*. Each working circle was divided into the regular and the *nistar*-felling series. Three rotations of 15, 20

and 30 years were prescribed in the regular felling-series. The *nistar*-felling series consisted of five coupes, each being opened after five years in rotation. Cultural operations were not prescribed, but grazing restriction and fire protection for areas felled within preceding 10 years were provided. An overlapping bamboo working circle was formed to be worked under a rotation of two years.

Thinning in valuable forests and climber-cutting in advance of the main fellings were introduced in 1923-24. A scheme of working bamboos under a rotation of three years was introduced in 1926-27.

As a result of Fernandez's plan, dead and deteriorating trees in the *sal* forests were removed leaving only young and vigorous trees, an important improvement in the state of regeneration of the forests. The results in the teak forests were also found satisfactory. In mixed forests in the heavily worked areas poor trees were removed and replaced by well-grown and vigorous coppice reproduction, but where the demand was partial cultural operations were neglected and the main fellings were confined to the best poles only with the result that the old and malformed trees remained standing. The forests near settlements suffered from heavy grazing.

The Second Working Plan.—Fernandez's working plan was revised in 1929 by Gurdial Singh who divided the forests into four working circles—the *sal* high forest working circle, the teak high forest working circle, the coppice-with-standard working circle and the low forest working circle.

Under the *sal* high forest working circle the forests of Khitoli and Barwani were converted into a regular series of age gradations under the shelter-wood compartment system by dividing them into three fixed periodic blocks each being sub-divided into 20 equi-productive coupes to be worked in rotation of 20 years. The coupes in periodic block I were worked by clear felling, except for some well-developed 'Sheltered woods' trees to protect the coppice against frost. The periodic block II, together with Sihora *sal* felling series was worked under crown-thinnings and the periodic block III was worked under thinning-*cum*-selection fellings. Subsequently, clear felling was done in 33' wide strips running north-west to south-east at intervals of 90 feet. Even this treatment proved ineffective.

As regards the teak forests the plan aimed at converting these forests into a regular series of age gradations and the circle was divided into 20 coupes, one of which was to be regenerated annually by clear fellings. The treatment prescribed for the periodic blocks Nos. I, II and III was clear fellings, crown-thinning and thinning-*cum*-selection felling, respectively. In periodic block No. I, after a few years the working was changed from clear felling to improvement felling and subsequently to selection-cum-improvement felling and then to coppice- with-standard. The periodic blocks Nos. II and III were also worked only in a small area for want of demand and difficulty of extension of the produce.

The coppice-with-standard working circle was implemented in the mixed forests with sporadic *sal* patches and certain teak forests, for a coppice rotation of 30 years and retention of standards for 60 years. The fruit trees near villages and *Koha* near *nalas* were to be retained. A thinning cycle of 15 years was prescribed. The subsequent working in three coupes of mixed forest was done on strip system.

All the poor mixed forests were included in the low forest working circle to be worked into 23 felling series under the modified simple coppice system on a rotation of 40 years. Under stocked or frost-liable areas and fruit trees, *harra*, *khair* and lac-host trees were excluded from fellings. The prescription was found unsuitable and in actual working the coppice-with-standard system was adopted in strips from coupe No. 5 onwards.

As a result of this plan, the *sal* coppice in the periodic block I of *sal* high forest working circle continued to suffer due to frost and browsing. The working in the Periodic blocks II and III was benificial but it had to be discontinued for lack of demand for the felled material. In the periodic block I of the teak high forest working circle the conversion, improvement and coppice-with-standard system proved failures due to the irregularities of site, quality, density and age of the crop, paucity of seedling regeneration and the ravage of frost and climbers. The work in the periodic blocks II and III could not progress for want of demand and difficulty of extraction. In the mixed forest the reproduction was good but the coppice with low lying areas suffered from frost. In the low forests, the modified simple coppice system was unsuitable as it was difficult for the marking officer to treat the variety of crops on merits. The coppice-with-standard system also failed in restocking the felled over areas.

The Third Working Plan.—Gurdial Singh revised his earlier plan in 1939 and divided the forest into two working circles. The *Sal* high forest working circle covered all the *Sal* bearing areas of Murwara range and the coppice-with-reserve working circle covered the rest of the workable forests.

The *Sal* bearing forests were divided into three felling series of Barwani, Khitoli and Sutri and an irrigular shelterwood system was introduced to improve the stock while making the best use of the existing growing stock.

The Coppice-with-reserve working circle comprised 28 felling series. Under this system teak and other valuable species, fruit-bearing trees, trees giving minor products and those on the *nala* banks and steep slopes were retained. Understocked areas were not to be worked. A rotation of 40 years was adopted and annual yield was controlled by areas.

Gurdial Singh also prescribed three overlapping working circles of bamboo, *khair* and *kulu*. Bamboo in 23 felling series was worked in cycle of 4 years. *Khair* trees with 15" girth at base or more were worked in a cycle of 10 years. The *kulu* circle was not worked systematically. Trees were lightly tapped.

The third working plan proved satisfactory. The regeneration in both the working circles had established and in deficient areas also regeneration had increased. The only draw-back was some incautious marking and opening up of the canopy resulting in frost damages. At places the vigorous growth of bamboos had suppressed the coppice reproduction. The working in the bamboo circle was unsatisfactory mainly due to the negligence in observing the felling rules. The condition of *kulu* trees was healthy.

The current working plan.—The current working plan was prepared by F. A. Lahri for the period of 15 years from 1952-53 to 1966-67. He prescribed three working circles and five overlapping working circles for the Division in the light of past experience The *Sal*, and teak forests are worked under two different selection-cum-improvement fellings while the system of working in the mixed forests is coppice-with reserve. The overlapping working circles are meant for working the bamboo *kulu*, *khair*, lac and miscellaneous items.

The *sal*, teak and mixed forests are to be worked on felling cycles of 40 years. Bamboo, *khair* and *kulu* are to be worked in 4, 20 and 3 years cycles, respectively. Lac cultivation has been prescribed on scientfic lines, for the two crops, *viz*., *Kathi* and *Baisakhi* which are harvested in November and July, respectively. Areas with sufficient number of lac host trees have been divided into 61 cropping series each of which is proposed to be divided into three coupes having areas in the ratio of 1:3:3. The smaller coupes will act as nursery for the next two bigger coupes which will be worked alternatively for the main 'Kathi' crop. The miscellaneous working circle covers the remote, eroded or steep areas, forest villages and reserved forests transfered to the management of Public Works Department. These are to be worked on lines prescribed in the Forest Department Manual.

Protected Forests.—Over the vast region of forests, as nature's free gift lying neither within anybody's fruitful claim nor protected by any law, the Proprietary Rights were created during the settlement of 1863-75, popularly known as "Malguzari Settlement.". This settlement evolved a system of landlords with little powers over the tenants for enhancement of rent, etc., or interference. The Malguzars were the village headmen or contractors most of whom farmed the revenues in about 1817, the last year of the Maratha administration in this District and on whom the restricted, expro-prietary rights of the village (including the village forests) were confirmed. The Rule devised in 1862 was to grant to the village, for inclusion in the estate, an area of waste land equal to 100 per cent as a minimum, and 200 per cent as a maximum, on the area of cultivated land for extension of cultivation and use of grazing ground, etc., and reserve the rest to the Government. The Government share of forests was free from rights of grazing or getting firewood and timber.

It was in the Indian Forest Act of 1878, that a greater part of the available waste was declared "Reserved", i.e., the Government forests. Wasteful treatment of forests in the village estates was prevented by the formation of the rules termed as "wajib-ul-arz" (Record of rights). Certain valuable trees like teak, *sal* and *shisham* were not allowed to be cut without a reference to the tahsildar and one good growth was to be left on each hundred square yards. *Mahua* trees were to be reserved.

Section 124 A of the Land Revenue Act of 1881 dealt with the protection of these forests. Corresponding to this, Section 202 of the Land Revenue Act, II of 1917 dealt with the Government

powers to regulate, control and manage the forest-growth on the wastelands of villages and to frame necessary rules. It empowered the Deputy Commissioner to notify a forest as requiring special protection and to impose a penalty for any breach of rules for the protection of forests. But these rules were never properly cared for and the malguzars and zamindars dealt the forest as their personal property without any idea of conservancy. The Land Revenue Act, of 1917 had also provided that the proprietors could prepare the working plans for their forests and in areas for which such working plan was approved by the Government, cuttings were not required to conform to the restrictions, imposed by the Act. Working Plans were prepared for bigger estates of Imalia and Salaiya. This provision proved as an additional cover for the proprietors to harvest as much of the forests as they could possibly do. Areas which were not commercially exploited under the sanctioned working plans or through leases, were subjected to heavy use by the local population. *Nistar* was seldom limited to terms of the "Wajib-ul-arz" and the ex-proprietors freely allowed their tenants liberal use of the forests in return for services rendered by them. The ruthless exploitation of private forests was somehow affected only by the M. P. Abolition of Proprietary Right (Estate, Mahal and Alienated Lands) Act, 1950 (I of 1951), but during the pre-liquidation period the landlords rather squeezed the remaining forest wealth, as their last gain. This created a grave shortage of forest produce and a danger to the very existence of these forests for a long time. After the abolition of Proprietary Rights, the ex-proprietary forest were placed for some time under the Revenue Department which managed them through the *Patels*. The protection being unassured under this arrangement, the so-called better quality forests and compact blocks were transferred to the Forest Department in 1952. The rest of the forest remained under the Revenue Department for management by the *Gram-Sabhas* or Nistar Panchayats in accordance with the rules farmed by the State Government. The blocks transferred to the Forest Department are subject to the *Nistar* of village and were closed as Protected forests. These forests were divided into zones by the Land Reforms Department in 1956 on the basis of area irrespective of conservancy ideas and were unworkable later on by the Forest Department which in turn divided these forests into felling series attached to a group of villages to meet their *Nistar* requirements. Each felling Series was divided into 20 coupes, one to be worked each year in rotation for *Nistar* purposes. A systematic working scheme of the better quality forests in the "Protected" area under the management of the Forest Department and also some area under its supervision

has been prepared for a period of twenty years with effect from 1962-63.

Effect of Government Forest Policy on the Flora of the District.—As a result of scientific management of the Reserved forests, they have improved considerabiy in quality, composition and density and have become an asset to the State. The ex-vested forests now under the Forest Department will take considerable time to improve. The reserved forest had been under protection from fires and illicit fellings for over 75 years and have considerably improved the condition of their growing stock. The forests in the remote areas, rich in potentiality, have been made accessible by means of fair weather roads, measuring over 200 miles in length in addition to the intersecting P. W. D. roads. The demand for timber, fuel and other forest produces, low in the beginning of the 20th century, has now increased to outstrip the average yield under conservancy.

Game Laws and Measures for the Preservation of Wild Life.—The increase of population, the knowledge about the wild life and the scientific advancement has resulted into rapid decrease in the number of wild fauna. To protect these animals as specimens of beauty and grandeur of the country and also as an aid to natural studies the necessity of legal measures was recognised by the Government of India very early. It passed an act, the Preservation of Animals and Game Act (Act XX of 1887). This was later replaced by the more comprehensive Wild Birds and Animals Protection Act of 1912. The Provincial Government of the Central Provinces and Berar sought to protect more varied and interesting fauna by the promulgation of special shooting rules (Appendix VII of the C. P. and Berar Forest Manual) and later by the Central Provinces Game Act (XV of 1935). Before the abolition of proprietary rights the private forests were free for shooting to the shikaries and good deal of game was destsoyed. It was very late that with the abolition of these rights the vested forests were covered by the shooting rules and a check was put on the illicit shooting, but co-operation from the public is still lacking. Most of the illicit shooting detected are acts of butchery by whatever means without any moral or intellectual considerations. There is almost unbelievable ignorance of the provisions of the C. P. and Berar Game Act

and of the rules framed thereunder not only amongst games licensees but also amongst Government servants. Under the present arrangement the whole district is divided into 19 shooting blocks, about a third of which are opened every year in rotation for the shooting of permitted species by the permit-holders. Permits are issued to the shikaries by the Divisional Forest Officer for a limited period on the payment of required fees.

Thus the provisions of these rules can adequately safeguard the wild fauna if a moral understanding is infused among the masses and the authorities be a little more vigilant.

FAUNA

The usual wild animals and birds, though not so plentiful as in the adjoining district of Mandla, are all found in sufficient numbers in Jabalpur District. The District thus has a rich variety of game to offer. The forests that clothe the Satpura hills and their extensions serve as excellent habitat for these animals and birds. The chief species found in this District are indicated below.

Mammals

Primates—Two species of monkeys commonly found in the District are the Bengal monkey (*Macacas rhesus*) and the *Langur* (*Semnopithecus entellus*). The former is a moderate seized monkey with grey hair, a short tail and flesh (reddish) coloured face confirming its name, the *lalmuha*. The name *Karmuha* or *kalmuha* of the other species denotes its black face, ears, hands and feet with a grey 'halo' of hair which surrounds its face. The *Karmuha* or the *langur* is larger in size and its tail is larger than that of the Bengal monkey. The *kalmuha* is seldom found in forests, whereas the *langur* is seen both in the vicinity of villages and in the forests. They damage agricultural crops and also unsettle the tiles on the roof.

The Government has issued licence to catch these monkeys to export them mostly to U. S. A. This manoeuver reduces them in number and yet pays returns in the shape of dollars. In case of both species one young is born at a time.

Carnivora—Among the animals belonging to the Felidae family the best known is tiger. The tiger (*Felis tigris*) combines in itself a grandeur of appearance, power and swiftness. It generally lives in thick forests all over the District but particularly in the *Sal* forests around Khitoli. Its food consists of whatever it may kill including deer, pigs, porcupine and village cattle. Cubs are chiefly

dropped in hot weather and also during the rains. The period of gestation is 14 to 16 weeks. One to seven cubs are born at a time In five years the cub becomes an adult. Its usual cruising habit is about 10 miles, but in hot season it mostly hovers around pet water-holes. The usual method of tiger hunting is to tie up a buffalo as a bait in a likely spot and when the tiger has killed it, he is either driven up to the sportman or is shot over the dead buffalo, on his return to feed.

The next most important member of the feline tribe is the Leopard (*Felis pardus*) of which all gradations of size and variations in spots are met with Unlike the tiger it readily climbs trees and regularly steals in to the vicinity of villages having little fear of man. At night it is found to enter the huts in search of prey which consists of small animals like goats, sheep, calves of cow and buffalo, docs and fowl The leopard is 5′ to 7′ long. Its tail varies greatly in length. It is found in all parts of the District; in summer, near the water courses. Two to four cubs are born during the rains and become adults in three years Of the smaller cats, the Indian Desert Cat (*Felis ornata*) is most commonly found in the District. The Wild Cat (*Felis chaus*) and the caracal (*Felis caracal*), though said to exist, are not commonly seen The hunting Leopard (*Felis jubata*) said to have existed in Murwara tahsil has now become scarce. sES

Of the viverridae family the Indian Palmcivet (*Paradoxurus crossi*) and the mongoose (*Herspestes edwardsi*) are the two species most commonly met with. The former is found both in towns and in forests. The latter inhabits hedge rows or out houses. It is almost omnivorous but it keeps down vermin including snakes It is tamed and made a charming pet.

Only one species of the hyaenidae family, the Striped Hyaena (*Hyaena hyaena or Hyaena striata*), an animal with massive head and forepart of the body and sloping weak hind quarters, is found in the District. Though common all over, it is seldom seen as its habits are nocturnal. During the day it lies up in a dense bush or cave. It is the scavanger of the jungle and eats up the carcasses of animals.

The principal representatives of the Canidae (dog tribe) family in the District are—

(1) The Indian wolf (*Canis pallipes*) is the largest representative of the family. It prefers hilly areas with sparse

forests and has been sometimes seen in the Sihora and Murwara tahsils. It is reported to be scarce now.

(2) The Jackal (*Canis aureus*) is found everywhere in the proximity of villages and the villager is well acquainted with its howling after dusk. It is easily recognised by its bushy tail. It is a useful scavanger. Its food is varied and consists of carrion, fishes, crabs, fruits and any animal it can kill. A litter of four is generally dropped after the cold weather.

(3) Wild dog (*Cyon dukhunensis*) is common in the expansive forests of the District. It has the deep chest and narrow waist of a gray hound with the head of a bull terrier, the individual varying greatly in size. The colour is rusty red. It hunts in packs and is destructive to *sambhar* and such other game animals. They have an aversion to carrion and live on animals killed almost daily. The wild dogs breed from January to April and four to five pups are dropped.

(4) The Indian fox (*Vulvos bengalensis*) is found in large number through out the tract. Its tail is bushier than that of the jackal. It inhabits open country and lives in large burrows. It feeds chiefly on field-rats, reptiles and insects.

The Sloth Bear (*Melursus ursinus*) is found in the north-eastern part of Murwara and southern part of Bargi range. It prefers hilly tract with suitable caves for shelter. It is clothed with shaggy hair while the muzzle is dirty grey. Its small eyes combined with its blubberous lips give it a clownish appearance. Its food consists of insects, honey and fruits. The bear is usually solitary, but 4 or 5 may be found together. Cubs, 2 in number, are born in December or January. It may attack man and when it does, it is very dangerous to encounter. The bear is possessed of a very high degree of intelligence, and is easily tamed and trained. Its eyesight and hearing power are poor but its sense of smell is acute. Probably of all animals found in the forest it is the noisiest, the most absurd.

Amongst the other interesting members of the order carnivora are (a) the Indian Ratel (*Millivora Indica*) which is said to be common, but seldom seen on account of its nocturnal habits, and (b) the common otter (*Lutra lutra*) and the smooth Indian otter (*Lutra jaranens*) which are found chiefly in rivers. It is often seen

in batches of 5 or 6 and occasionally as many as 20 will congregate in a pool. Its principal food is fish.

Rodentia.—Of the family of sciuridae found in the District the most curious is the flying squirrel (*petaurista oral*) which is now a rare species met with only in forests. This animal is dark brown or black in colour. It is provided with a parachute or a fold of skin between its fore and hind legs and along its sides, by means of which it can leap from one tree to the other by sailing. The Central Indian Giant Squirrel (*Retufa Indica Centralis*) is a large chestnut coloured squirrel found in thick forests. The Central India Plam Squirrel (*Funambulus robertsohi*) is common in wooded localities while the common five striped squirrel (*Funambulus Pennanti*) is more addicted to towns and villages. The Muridae family is an exceedingly numerous one. An interesting species is the ante-operat (*Tatera Indica*) which by means of its kangaroo like legs can spring a distance of 4 to 5 yards. The Bandicoot rat or *ghus* (*Bandifiota malabarica*) is probably the largest rat in the world. It is a burrower and is chiefly about cultivated tracts in villages or towns.

Other rodents worth a mention are the Indian Porcupine (*Acanthion leucurus leucurus*), covered with coarse bristles marked with black and white band, and the more numerous Indian Hare (*Lepus ruficaudatus*).

Unglata.—Of Bovidae family the Indian bison or gaur (*Bibos gaurus gaurus*) and many species of antelopes are found in the District The bison is much reduced in number and is occasionally seen in the dense forests and deserted villages of Kharhata and adjoining areas. Its food consists of bamboo leaves, coarse grass, fruits and barks of certain trees. The largest of the four species of antelopes observed in the district is the *nilgai* (*Boselephs tragocamelus*) which is commonly found in the open forest on the edge of cultivation, or deserted village sites. It is found more in the Silondia and Khitoli Blocks. The adult bull is dark blue, almost black in colour. Young specimens are brown. The mane, a tuft of coarse hair on the throat, parts of the ear and the tip of the tail are black. The male possesses two black short horns. The female is brown in colour and harmless. The four horned antelope (*Tetraceros quadricornis*) is found in dense forests only and is rarely seen. In appearance it is a small rufous coloured antelope. Adult male possesses 4 horns. 2 in the usual place and 2 in front of and in line with the back pair. The interior horns are about 1" in length and the exterior 4".

The Black Buck.- (*Antelope cervicapra*) is seen in Jabalpur and Murwara ranges. Being fond of field crops in plain country it has generally been killed and has now become rare in this District. The Chinkara (*Gazella bennetti*) is found in scrub jungles, grass, and in ravines on the banks of rivers. The males have curved ringed horns about 12" long and the females smooth conical horns which rarely exceed 5". There is no fixed breeding time and one or two fawns are produced at a time.

The cervidae or deer is the most interesting family of wild animals found in the District. The barking deer (*Muntiacus aurens*) is one of the commonest deer of the District. Its name is derived from its peculiar cry like a dog's bark. Its peculiarities are its long pedicels of 3" or 4" which are prodonged in a long rib down the face. The horns have two points. The buck is armed with mobile tusk, or the upper jaw which is its chief weapon of offence. The *sambhar* (*Rusa unicolour unicolour*) is the largest deer It is widely distributed, but being a slow breeder it occurs in limited numbers. It is found in Baghraji, Surmawah, Khitoli and Machmacha blocks. Its colour is uniform dark brown. The ears are exceptionally large and the hair is peculiarly coarse. The rut takes place in December. The fawns drop in April.

The *chital* or spotted deer (*Axis axis* also called *cerves axis*) is most beautiful of all the deer found in India. The skin is rufous coloured with white spots arranged in lines. A dark stripe runs along the back flanked by a row of white spots. The horns are long and gracefully set. It is found in numbers in the Khitoli and Karopani blocks where there is plentiful supply of water. It prefers the lower slopes of hills and grassy blanks near villages. The young are born in all seasons but rut takes place in April and May. Stags are found in horns at all seasons but the majority are in velvet from September to January. Mouse deer (*Moschiola meminna*) was seen earlier in Khitoli forests but is now rarely seen. This little animal resembles the country sqirrel in colour. There are no horns but the bucks are armed with sharp tusks in the upper jaws which point downward. The young are born in April and May, one or two at a time. It is easily tamed. The Wild Boar (*Sus Cristatus cristatus*) is very common. It frequents both forests and cultivated lands. This animal is known for its intelligence and courage and will oppose any wild animal. It destroys crops in marginally cultivated lands. The rut takes place in April. The period of gestation is 4 months. The hair is thick sparse and straight and is exported with those of the village pigs for bristles—a dollar-earning commodity

Chiroptera.—Among the Chiropterae or flying mammals the most interesting species is the flying fox or the Indian fruit-bat (*Pteropus giganteus giganteus*) which is commonly seen flying after sunset. The animal varies in colour from yellowish brown to very dark brown. It subsists mainly on fruit or vegetable matter. It is nocturnal and during the days can be seen in large numbers, head downwards, commonly on a tamarind tree or a bamboo clump. The female gets one young in spring which she carries clinging to her breast for about a month after birth. The small or Indian vampire bat (*Lyroderma lyra lyra*) hides during the day in caves, buildings and roofs of houses. It feeds on insects, worms and small frogs.

Birds.

Few birds are peculiar to the District. However, the avifauna of the District is rich and varied and more than 300 species have been observed. The appearance of the feathered birds is closely connected with the landscape and the season. Thus, while some birds are residents, a few visitors are seen in the winter only, some have a preference for the hills or wooded tracts, a few others cling to human habitations. A brief account of the birds more commonly observed in the District follows.

Some birds are seen generally in and around human dwellings. Of these undoubtedly our most familiar bird, the House Sparrow (*Passer domesticus*), is inseparable from human habitations. It is a confirmed hanger on of man in hills and plain alike and feeds on grain, insects, and kitchen scraps. The House Crow (*G. splendens splendens*) lives in close association with man. Its grey neck and smaller size distinguish it from the all-black jungle crow (*Corvus macrorhynchos*). The house-crow will eat almost anything from carrion to kitchen scraps and is a very useful scavenger. A little less noisy than the house-crow and following man wherever he opens up new habitations is the common *Myna* (*Acridotheres tristis*), a well-groomed dark brown bird with bright yellow bill, legs and bare skin around the eyes. It eats insects, fruits and kitchen scraps and follows the plough for the earthworms and attends the grazing cattle for grass-hoppers. The pale bluish grey Bank *Myna* or Ganga *Myna* (*Acridothers guiginiatus*) and the black and white pied *Myna* (*Sturnopastos contra*) also moves about grazing cattle for insects and is seen perched on refuse-dumps for scraps and titbits

Also seen hopping along the ground, mounting a fence-post or perched on the thatched roof tossing upward its jaunty cocked tail, is the Indian Robin (*Saxicoloides fulicata cambanesis*) a sprightly black bird with a white patch on wing and rusty red under root of cocked tail. No less familiar is the slaty grey *kabutar* or Blue Rock Pigeon (*Columba livia*) which chooses grain godowns, railway stations, old or disused buildings as its haunts. In its wild state it affects open country with cliffs or rocky hills.

A few birds, though really belonging to forests are seen inside human dwellings as they have been chosen for pets. Among these the place of pride goes to parakeets specially the *Raitota* or the large Indian parakeet (*Psittacula enpatria*), grass green in colour with a conspicuous maroon colour patch on each shoulder and massive deeply hooked red bill. It learns to repeat a few words rather indistinctly as compared to Hill *Myna* (*Gracula religiosa*) another pet cagebird. The *Myna* is an accomplished mimic and talker. A favourite with fanciers as a fighting bird is the Red Vented *Bulbul* (*Molpastes Cafer Cafer*) and stalls are wagered on bulbul fights. It is a perky smoke-brown bird with partially crested black head and a conspicuous crimson patch at tail root. When not caged it is commonly seen in gardens and groves and collects in large numbers to feed on banyan and *pipal* figs. Another cagebird is the Red *Munia* (*Amandava amandava*) with its feeble but musical chirping. In the villages grey partridge or *Teetar* (*Francolinus pondicerianus*) is sometimes caged. Fancy artificial stains of the pigeon are also seen in several houses.

Gardens and groves are the favourite resort of a large variety of birds. Some of these are.—

1. The *Koel* (*Endynamis scolopaceus*) is glistening black with yellowish green bill, crimson eyes and long tail. Its calls successively rising in pitch are the earliest bird voice at dawn in the hot weather.

2. The common Hawk *Cuckoo* or Brain Fever Bird (*Hierococcy varius*) ashy grey above, whitish below, crossbarred with brown, repeats *Pee Kahan* 5 or 6 times raising in crescendo and ending abruptly. The call is heard all through the day and frequently during moonlit nights in the summer.

3. The *Hoopoe* or *Hudhud* (*Upupa epops*) is a fawn coloured bird with black and white zebra marking on back wings and tails and a conspicuous fan-shaped crest. The crest is flicked open from time to time and is folded back while digging the soil for food.

4. The Paradise Flycatcher (*Tehitrea paradise*) with black crested head and two long narrow ribbon like feathers in tail and, the white-spotted fantail Fly catcher (*Leucocirea Pectoralis*) flitting tirelessly in foliage and on ground waltzing and pirouetting are interesting species.

5. The purple sunbird (*Leptocoma cynnyris asiastica*) and the purple rumped sunbird (*Leptocoma cynnyris-zeylonica*) are found moving inquest of flower nectar and cross pollinating numerous species of flowers.

6. The tailor-bird (*Orthitomus sutorius*) is an olive-green bird carrying a cocked tail. Ashy Wren Warbler (*Prinia socialis*) is a bird with a black and white tipped tail which is constantly shaken up and down while hopping amongst bushes.

7. The crow pheasant or the *Mahoka* (*Centropus sinensis*) is a glossy bird with chestnut wings and long broad black tail hopping with agility in search of caterpillar, large insects, etc.

8. The common Iora (*Aegithina tiphia tiphia*) is a black and yellow titlike bird with two white wing-bars hopping from twig to twig in search of insects.

On the outskirts of towns and villages one frequently sees the magpie robin (*Copsychussaularis saularis*), a trim black and white bird with cocked tail skulking in shrubbery, and the Black Drongo (*Dicrurus macrocersus macrocersus*), an agile glossy black bird with long deeply forked tail perched on telegraph wires or attending on grazing cattle and watching for grasshoppers and other insects. The telegraph wire is a favourite perch of the Blue jay or *Nilkanth* (*Coracus bengalensis*) whose dark and pale blue portions of the wing show up as brilliant bands in flight. From its perch it pounces on large insects, frogs and lizards. It is beneficial to agriculture since it destroys injurious insects in large numbers. In winter the common swallow (*Hirundo rustica*), glossy steel blue above and pale pinkish white below with chestnut forehead and

throat, is usually seen huddled on telegraph wires. On the mango tops and old trees the yellow-fronted pied woodpecker (*Liespicus mahrathensis*), the golden-backed woodpecker or *Kalphora* (*Brachyplermis benghalensis*), and the chestnut-bellied *Nathatch* (*Sitta Castanea Prateri*) are often found hopping on the bark and drilling rotten wood for insects. Covers of large trees around villages and cultivation attract the Golden oriole (*Oriolus oriolus*), a bright golden yellow bird with black in wings and tail. and the Black headed oriole (*Oriolus xanthornus*), another brilliant golden yellow bird with jet black head, throat and upper breast, as they are interested in beries and banyan and *pipal* figs.

Also partial to mango, *neem*, tamarind and other leafy trees, is the black-headed cuckoo-shrike (*Lalage skegesi*) interested in hunting insects for its food. The Red stork or Thirthira (*Phoenicurus ochrurus rufiuentris*), an active, black and orange chestnut bird, is a winter visitor met with around villages and cultivations in groves. It feeds on insects and spiders picked off the ground. The common Grey Quail or Bater (*Coturnix coturnix*) is a tailless partridge like bird, bluish-brown with pale streaks and irregular blotches of reddish brown and black above. It affects open country with standing crops and grasslands. The resident population is greatly augmented by immigrants during winter. It lives on grain, grass-seeds and termites. The black headed Bunting (*Emberiza melanocephala*) and the red-headed Bunting (*E. luteola*) are winter visitors. They come in flocks to *jowari* and wheat cultivation. The Demoisella crane ,*Anthropoides Virgo*), a dimly grey crane with black head and neck, is a winter visitor affecting open cultivated country feeding on tender shoots of gram and wheat. It rests in flocks on margins of *jheels* turning in day. The *saras* crane (*Antigone antigone*), tall grey with long bare red legs, is essentially a dweller of open well-watered plains. It is seen in pairs and is known for conjugal devotion. It feeds on grain-shoots, other vegetable matter and insects.

The open cultivated areas and the neighbourhood are affected by birds which live on insects found in the fields, grass-seeds, grain, etc. Some other resident birds are—

1. The Pied Bushchat (*Saxicola caprata bicolor*) is black with white patches on rump, abdomen and wings. It preys on insects.

2. The common weaver bird or *Baysa* (*Ploceus philippines*), dark-streaked fulvous brown above and plain whitish fulvous below, gleans paddy and other grains in cultivated field. Paddy cultivation provides it both nestling material and food. The nest is a swinging retort-shaped structure with long vertical entrance tube suspended in clusters from twigs usually over water.

3. The white-backed *Munia* (*Uroloncha strixba*), a small black and white finch, the white throated *Munia* (*U. malabarica*), earthy brown with pointed black tail while the upper tail coverts and with whitish upper underpart; and the spotted *Munia* (*U. Punchileta*) in braided plumage, upper parts of chocolate brown and lower white speckled with black, are birds generally met with. All the three feed on grass-seeds while the last occasionlly devours winged termites.

4. The Small Indian Skylark (*Alunda gulgula*) which looks like the female house-sparrow, is essentially a bird of grassy meadows and open cultivation, and feeds on seeds and insects. It shoots upwards vertically and remains stationary there and sings melodiously.

5. The Cattle Egret (*Bubulous ibis*) is a bird with white plumage and yellow bill. It stalks alongside grazing cattle and preys on insects disturbed by their movement amongst the grass.

6. The Crested Lark (*Galerida cristata chendoola*) runs in places with scanty grass ground cover in search of food, grass-seeds and insects.

7. The common Green Bee-eater (*Merops Orientalis*) is a grass-green bird tinged with reddish brown on head and neck. It pursues and swallows bees and insects.

Among the birds which affect the open cultivated country are the Spotted Dove (*Steptopelia chinensis*) with spotted pinkish brown and grey upper parts and white and black chessboard on hind neck and, the Ring Dove (*S. risoria*), a grey and brown pigeon with a prominent half black collar or ring on the hind neck. The common Sandgrouse or *Bhattitar* (*Pterocles exustus*) affects barren plains, fields and fallow land gleaning weed and grass seeds.

Some of the more known birds affecting scrub and grasslands are—

1. The Ashy Wren-Warbler (*Prinia socialis*) prefers moist grass land, scrub and reed bordering streams. Its black and white tipped tail is constantly shaken up and down.
2. The Gray Partridge (*Francolinus pondicerianus*) or *teetar* affects dry-open grass and thorn-open scrub country.
3. The Indian-Button-quail or Lowwa (*Turnx maculatus*) with bright yellow legs and bill affects scrub and grass land and rises only in feeble flight when almost trodden upon.

The jungle Bush Quail (*Perdicula asiatica*) lives in dry stony grass and scrub jungle while the Black Partridge (*Francolinus francolinus*) with glistening white check-patches and chestnut collar of the cock is restricted to well-watered scrub and tall grass jungle. The Rufous-bellied Babbler (*Dumetia hyparythra hyparythra*) also inhabits lightly wooded thorny scrub and tall grass country.

Some of the birds, *e.g.*, the sandgrouse, black partridge, grey partridge, grey quail, etc., mentioned earlier as inhabiting grass land are also found in open shrub jungles and light deciduous forests. Of many other birds inhabiting the forests, the more interesting ones are the following:—

1. The common Pea fowl or *Mor* (*Pawo cristatus*) is the beautiful National Bird gregariously found in dense scrub and deciduous forest. The hen does not have the gorgeous tail covet of the cock but both are crested. It feeds on insects, lizards, snakes, etc. It rarely flies, but roosts in large trees.
2. The Grey Jungle Fowl (*Gallus sonnerati*) is a grey and black fowl with sickle-shaped tail. It roosts in trees or bamboo clumps.
3. The Red Jungle Fowl (*Gallus gallus*), roosts up in trees and bamboo clumps and eats grains, vegetable shoots, insects, lizards, etc.
4. The Blue Rock Pigeon (*Columba livia*) is slaty grey with metallic green purple and magenta sheet on and upper breast.

5. The common Green Pigeon or *Harial* (*Crocopus phoenicopterus*) is an olive-green and ashy grey bird; affects banyan and *pipal* when in fruit.

6. The Grey Tit (*Parus major stufae*) with glossy crested black head, white check patches, grey back and whitish underparts with a black band down the centre, feeds on insects, kernel of small nuts and seeds.

7. The spotted babbler (*Pelloraneum ruficep ruficep*). an olive brown babbler, underparts whitish heavily spotted brown, partial to hill sides over-grown with scrub and bamboo thickets, has plaintive whistling notes.

8. The gold-fronted chloropsis (*Chloropsis aurifrons*) and jerdons chloropsis (*Chloropsis jerdoni*) are grass green birds, the former with bright golden forehead and the latter with purplish blue moustachial streaks. The latter prefers less thickly wooded country while both are good mimics of other birds and hunt for insects and spiders in foliage.

9. The Blue-headed Rock Thrust (*Monticola circichlorhyncha*) is a winter visitor; upper parts blue and black. rump and underparts chestnut, a white patch on wing; affects light deciduous and bamboo jungle.

10. The Blossom-headed parakeet or *Tuia Tota* (*Psittacula cyano cephala*) is slender with long pointed tail; prefers better wooded country.

The number of birds living in and around rivers, streams, tanks, etc., is also large. Among these are numerous species of storks, herons, cranes, snipes, ducks, egrets, etc., haunting pools and marshy lands. The Grey Wagtail (*Motacilla cinera melanope*) and the large Pied Wagtail (*M. maderas patenensis*) are often seen about on ground near rocky streams and village tanks chasing insects. Seated close to water on an overhanging branch may be seen the common Kingfisher (*Alcedo atthis benghalensis*), blue and green with rust coloured underparts and short stumps tail, and the pied King-fisher (*ceryle rudis lencomelanura*) on some favourite rock for hunting fish. On the margins of *jheels* and ponds the white-breasted waterhan (*Amaurornis Phoenicura*), a slaty grey stub-tailed long legged marsh bird, searches for insects, worms and molluscs. The painted snipe (*Rostratula benghalensis*) also affects reed covered swamps, margins of tanks and inundated paddy fields. The fan-tailed snipe (*Capella gallinago*) and the pintail Snipe (*C stenura*) are winter visitors found

on the grassy margins of tanks. The River Terns (*Sterna aeviantia*), a winter visitor, flies over water scanning the surface for fish, suddenly plunges to reappear quickly with its victim. The squat and tailless little Grabe (*Padiceps ruficolles*) dives into the water and preys on acquatic insects, frogs, etc., which are pursued under water. The little Cormorant (*Phalacrocorax niger*) and the Darter (*Auhinga melanogaster*) are sub-marine swimmers which chase and catch fish below the surface. The bronze-winged Jacana (*Metopidias indicus*) with glassy black head, neck and breast, metallic greenish bronze back and wings and chestnut red stub-tail, and the Pheasant-tailed Jacana with large amount of white and chocolate brown in plumage and pointed-down curved tail affect tanks and reservoirs abounding in floating vegetation, such as, water-lily and *singara* (*Trapa*). The long widely spreading toes help these birds to distribute their weight and trip along with ease over the floating mass of leaves and stems. They feed on roots and seeds of aquatic plants, insects and mollusca.

The tanks and reservoirs of the District are inhabited by a few domestic ducks such as, the Comb Duck or *Nukta* (*Sarkidiormis metanotos*), black above glossed with blue and green and white below. the chestnut coloured whistling Teal (*Dendrovygna Javanica*). the carlton teal (*Nettapus coromandelianus*), glossy brown above with a prominent black collar and white wing bar, etc. They receive a large variety of water-birds in winter. Prominent among them are the Brahminy Duck or *chakwa-chakwi* (*Castrca ferruginea*), the Pochard (*Nyroca ferina*), common Teal (*Nethion crecea*), Pintail (*Dafila acuta*) and Mallard (*Anas platyrhyncha*).

Several varieties of vultures, eagles, kites, nightjars, owls and owlets are also found in this District. The common game birds of the District are the various kinds of ducks, snipes, fowls, partridges, pigeons and quails. Also much eagerly sought by sportsmen is demoiselle crane.

Butterflies.—

The butterflies found in the District have not been studied exclusively for the area. B. A. D' Abraeu, the Curator of Nagpur Museum in 1931 published the following species to be common throughout the erstwhile Central Provinces and Berar :—

The Common tiger (*Danais plexippus*), the plain tiger (*Danais chrysippus*). the blue tiger (*Danais limniace*), the common Crow (*Euploea core*), the common evening brown or rice butterfly (*Melanitis ismene*), the baronet (*Euthalia nais*). the sailor (*Neptis eurynome*),

the lemon pansy (*Junonia lemonias*), the blue pansy (*Junonia orithya*), the yellow pansy (*Junonia hierta*), the peacock pansy (*Junonia almana*), the painted lady (*Venessa cardui*), the great eggfly (*Hypolimnas bolina*), the danaid eggfly (*Hypolimnas misippus*). the leopard (*Atella phalantha*). the common judy (*Abisara echerius*), the lime butterfly (*Papilio demoleus*), the common mormon (*Papilio polytes*), the common jezabel (*Delias eucharis*), the pioneer (*Anaphaeis mesentina*), the common emigrant (*Catopsiha orocale*). the mottled emigrant (*Calopsilia pyran the*). the common yellow (*Terias heclabde*), the tiny grass blue (*Zizera gaika*), the lesser grass blue (*Zizera otis*), the tailed cupid (*Everes argiades*), the forget-me-not (*Catochrysops strabo*), the gram blue (*Catochrysops onejus*), the rusty pierrot (*Tarucus theophrastus*), the meadow blue (*Palyommatus boeticus*), the brown owl (*Badamia exclamationist*). the Indian skipper (*Hesperia galba*), and the dark branded swift (*Chapra mathias*).

The species recorded in the Jabalpur District are the two varieties of plain tiger, *viz., Danais chrysippus var alcippus Cramer, and Danais chrysippus, Dimorph dorippus, Klug*, the jewel fourring (*Yopthima avanta*). the plain orange tip (*Colotis eucharis*), the plain blue royal (*Tajuria jehana*), the tricolour pied flat (*Coladenia indrani*), the Indian palm bob (*Suastus gremius*). the Robson's palm bob (*Saustus robsoni*), the Vindhyan bob (*Arnetta Vindhiana*), the spotted demon (*Notocrypta feisthamelii*), the rice swift (*Caltoris coloca*). the Bevan's swift (*Caltoris bevani*). and the large branded swift (*Chapra sinensis*).

Snakes

Of snakes the commonest are the black variety of cobra (*Naja tripudious*), *Garetha* or *karait*, both varieties of the black banded snake (*Bungarus fasciatus and B, cerullius*), the *dhaman* or rat-snake (*Ptyas Mucosus*) and the water-snake often miscalled *dhaman*. The water-snake is non-poisonous. Of vipers the Russel's Viper (*Vipera Russelii*) is the principal. It is as poisonous as a cobra, but more dangerous on account of its sluggish habits which prevent it from moving away quietly on the approach of a man, and also on account of its fangs which are of the same size as those of a cobra and will pass through thick layers of clothing. One species of small green viper frequenting trees, and another of a thin long brown type have been observed, but not identified. *Echis carinata* occurs, as one specimen was obtained lately in the town of Jabalpur.

Amphibia

Crocodile (*Crocodilus pelustris*) is found in all the large rivers and many large tanks. Turtles occur in the Narmada.

Fishes

The Narmada and the Mahanadi along with their tributaries and numerous artificial tanks provide habitat to the fish fauna of the District. A large variety of fishes are found in these waters, but they hardly develop to the proper size of their species except in the Narmada where there is ample water in the pools even in the summer. The important fish varieties found commonly in the rivers of the District are *mahseer* (*Barbostor*), murrel or *samal* (*Ophiocephalus striatus*), *bam* (*Mastacembalus*), *padhan* (*Wallagoaf*), *suja* (*Bellone*), *kanghi* (*Ambassis*), *Catle* (*Catla-catla*) and *reeta* (*Rita-rita*). ***Rohu* or *rohan* (*Labeo rohita*) is found in the** Narmada and other major rivers. *Chilwa* (*Aspidoparia moyar*), *tengura* or *katia* (*Macrones vittatus*) and other small varieties are common in all the streams. *Magoora* (*clarias magur*) and *singhi* or *singan* (*Heteropneustes fossilia*) are found in the closed waters of tanks and dams.

The Fisheries Department of the State Government have noted various species in the District and have grouped them under the families as follows:—

Family.—Cyprinidae.

Major Carps—

Catla-catla (*Katla*), Labeo rohita (*Rohu*), cirhina mirgala (*Mirgal*), Labeo calbasu (*karyant*) and Barbus tor (*Mahseer*).

Minor Carps—

Chela bacaila (*chilwa*), Rasbora spp. (*khaddia*), Barbus ticto (*Khaddia*), Barbus stigma (*khaddia*), Barbus sarana (*samri*), Labeo gonius (*kunsa*), Discognathus spp. (*patharchata*) and Lapidocephalichthys spp. (*gunguch*).

Family.—Clariidae.

Clarias magur (*magoora*).

Family.—Heteropneustidae.

Heteropheustes fossilis (*singhi*).

Family.—Siluridae.

Callichrous bimaculatus (*chechera*) and Wallogo attu (*parhin*).

Family.—Schilbeidae.

Pangasius pangasius (*pangas*) and Silondia silondia (*silond*).

Family.—Bagridae.

Mistus spp. (*tingar*), rita rita (*reeta*).

Family.—Sisoridae.

Bagarius bagarious (*gaunch*).

Family.—Xenentodontidae.

Xenentodon concila (*sooja*).

Family.—Ambassidae.

Ambassis nama (*chanda*) and ambassis runga (*chanda*).

Family.—Nandidae.

Nandus nandus (*chaunaria*).

Family.—Ophiocephalidae.

Ophiocephalus marulins (*Sounr*), Ophiocephalus gachua (*kudda*), Ophiocephalus punctatus (*bhunda*) and Ophiocephalus striatus (*bhunda, murrel* or *sawal*).

Family.—Mastacembelidae.

Mastacembelus armatus (*bam*) and rhynchobdella aculeata (bam).

Common Insects

1. Periplaneta americana—the cockroach.
2. Apis dorsata, A. indica—Honey-bee.
3. Anopheles mawlipennis—A gigas Mosquitoes.
4. Culex fatigens.
5. Aides nigrescens—Gnats.
6. Leptocorisa Varicornis—Rice-bug.
7. Heiroglyphus banian—Rice grasshopper.
8. Musca domestica—House-fly.
9. Heliothis arniger—Gram-caterpillar.
10. Humbertella indica.
11. Hicrodulo casroteta—Common mantis.
12. Gryllus bimaculatus—Desut-Cricket.
13. Gryllotalpa gryllotalpa—Mole-cricket.
14. Odontotermes obesi—The common mound-building termite.
15. Dytiscus—The common water-beetle.
16. Aulocophora—Red pumptun-beetle.
17. Gerris—Water-bug.
18. Ephameron—May-fly.
19. Lampyris—Glow-worm.
20. Searabus—Dung-roller.

Poisonous insects.—Among the poisonous insects of this area are the bees and wasps and a few species of the blister-beetles of the genus zonabris of the formicoids (ants) and the hairy caterpillars of mypantridats and lasiocampidat.

Mortality from Reptiles and Wild Animals.—Mortality from the reptiles and wild animals is very high in the district, particularly from the snake-bite. During the period of seven years commencing from 1956, the snakes caused 534 deaths in the district. The number of deaths caused by other animals is, 42 by *guheras*, 21 by mad dogs, 8 by scorpions, 5 each by jackals and tigers, 3 by leopards, 2 by bears and one by the bees. The cases of deaths due to *guhera* were registered to be the highest in Katni, Badwara, Majhauli, Shahpura and Sleemnabad Police Stations and least in the Jabalpur city. Deaths due to dog-bites occurred mostly in the city while it was only an occasional case in the rural areas. Barhi and Rithi areas recorded more deaths caused by the scorpions, than any other part of the district.

The snake-bite casualties occurred mostly in Kundam, Sihora, Badwara, Bijairaghogarh and O. P. Kymore Police Stations. Other stations registering sufficiently high numbers of deaths due to snake-bite are Majhgawan, Barhi, Katni, Rithi, Umaria and Omti.

Within the city of Jabalpur itself, the snake-bite casualties were remarkably high in areas within the jurisdiction of Omti, Garha and Khamaria Police stations. Omti station also recorded a higher number of deaths, occurring in the city, caused by dog-bite and other animals.

CLIMATE

The climate of the District is, on the whole, pleasant and salubrious. The year may be divided into three seasons, the hot season from about the middle of March to the middle of June, the monsoon season from the middle of June to the end of September and the winter season from November to middle of March. October is the transitional month from the monsoon to winter conditions.

Temperature.—The meteorological records of the Jabalpur Observatory may be taken to represent the conditions over different parts of the District subject to local variations of altitude, etc., (*See* Table 3 in the Appendix). December and January are the coldest months with the mean daily maximum temperature at 25.3° C (77.5° F) in December and January, and the mean daily minimum at 8.2° C

(46.8° F) in December and 9.0° C (48.2° F) in January. From December to February, minimum temperature on individual days may drop to near freezing point of water in association with cold waves in the wake of western disturbances. Frost often causes widespread damage to crops in the winter season. Heavy dew-fall occurs from November to January. Temperature begins to rise steadily from March. May is the hottest month with mean daily maximum temperature at 41°C (105.8° F). The heat at times is intense and oppressive. "Loo", the gusts of hot winds, in the afternoons, causes sun-stroke. Nights are hotter in June than in May. With the onset of monsoon weather becomes cool to a considerable extent. Towards the end of the monsoon season day temperatures register a slight increase and reach a secondary maximum in October.

Winds.—Winds are controlled by the shifting pressure belts. They are predominantly from south-west during the monsoon months In the post-monsoon and winter months, southerly and south-easterly winds prevail in the mornings while in the afternoon winds blow from directions between east and north. In the summer months winds blow from directions between south-east and north-west through south and west.

Except during the monsoon season wind speed is generally light to moderate (*See* Table 4 in the Appendix). In the monsoon months winds are stronger and, on a few occasions, reach the velocity of 40 to 50 Kilometres per hour in association with the passage of depressions.

Cloudiness —Clouds are accumulated by the winds prevailing in the late summer and monsoon period when heavily clouded to overcast conditions prevail. Skies are clear or lightly clouded in the dry period of the year.

Rainfall.—Rainfall records in the District are available for a network of 12 stations for periods ranging from 35 to 70 years. A statement of the monthly and annual rainfall and number of rainy days in the District is given in Table 1. The average annual rainfall over the District is 1274 mm. (50.16"). The belt of high precipitation runs along the south-eastern boundary of the District, the highest record being 1582.5 mm., that of Pariat. The amount of rainfall decreases towards the north and west. Bijairaghogarh in the north-eastern plain records the lowest rainfall of 1096.1 mm. in the District.

The spatial distribution of the number of rainy days in a year roughly corresponds to the distribution of rainfall amount. On an average there are about 60 rainy days with a rainfall of 2.5 mm. or 10 cents or more in a year. It varies from 52.4 at Berar Kalan to about 66 at Jabalpur. The District received 88 per cent of the annual rainfall during the monsoon months, July being the rainiest month. The north-western part of Murwara tahsil gets a higher amount of rainfall in August than in July. The variation of rainfall from year to year is not very large (See Table 2 in the Appendix). During the period of 50 years from 1901 to 1950, the highest rainfall amounting to 143 per cent of the normal occurred in 1926 while 1920 and 1941 were the years of lowest rainfall amounting only to 60 per cent of the normal. There were six years in the 50 year period when the District rainfall was less than 80 per cent of the normal, no two of them being consecutive years. In the case of individual stations consecutive years of low rainfall occurred only once or twice. Table IV gives the frequency of annual rainfall in the District. In 37 years out of 50, the rainfall was between 1000 and 1500 mms.

The maximum rainfall in 24 hours recorded at any station in the District was 391.2 mm (15.4″) at Pariat on 25th August, 1952.

Humidity.—During the summer months the air is very dry with the relative humidities as low as 15 to 20 per cent in the afternoons. During the monsoon, high humidities prevail. In the post-monsoon and winter months the air is moderately humid.

Special weather phenomena.—Depressions originating in the Bay of Bengal and passing westwards cause widespread rain accompanied with gusty winds during the monsoon season. Except in November and December thunder-storms occur throughout year, their frequency being highest in June. The thunder-storms of the summer months are accompanied with squalls. Destructive hail-storms occur occassionally in the winter and early summer months. Fog may occur on two or three days during the winter season.

Tables 3, 4 and 5 give data relating to temperature and humidity, wind and special weather phenomena, respectively, for Jabalpur.

CHAPTER II

HISTORY

So far as the evidence goes the earliest inhabitants of Jabalpur were perhaps the palaeolithic men. The widespread traces of their settlements are noticed at various places, particularly in Bheraghat, Tilwaraghat and Lametaghat.[1] A fragmentary account of their life is preserved in the geological deposits found in the ancient alluvial tract of the Narmada and its tributaries, Hiran, Gaur, Kulhar and Pariat. They contain in them the numerous documentary relics entombed in the form of man's skeletal remains, his artifacts, and other proofs of his handiwork, industry and culture.[2] On palaentological evidence, these are assinged a horizon near to midpleistocene period.[3] During archaeological surveys between Amarkantak and Jabalpur numerous palaeolithic tools were collected, some from what De Terra and Paterson call 'Lower' and 'Upper Narmada Group', respectively.[4] Typologically, as well as stratigraphically, they represent a handaxe-cleaver industry of the Abbevillio-Acheulian variety. Lately signs of microlithic industry have also been obtained from Hantala, Marai Kalan, Tamer, Turak-Khera, and other places in the District.[5] There is evidence to show that some of these parts in this District, particularly those on the banks or the Narmada and its tributaries, were inhabited as early as in the stone age, *i.e.*, in about the second millennium B. C. A search in the area of the Bheraghat *nala*, about nine miles west of Jabalpur, brought to light what are technically known as 'retouched flakes', rolled by water action. These flakes are large and identical with those explored in the Adilabad district in

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1. Indian Archaeology—A review, 1958-59, p 72; 1959-60, p. 59; 1960-61, pp. 13—17 and 60

2. For literature on this subject *see* Journal of Asiatic Society of Bengal. 1865, pp. 77—80; 1866, pp. 135-36 and 230—34; Coggin Brown, Catalogue *Raisonne* of The pre-historic Antiquities in the Indian Museum at Calcutta, p 57; Transactions of Edinburgh Geological Survey, Vol. I, 1867, pp. 198—201, Bruce Foote, Indian Pre-historic and Proto-historic Antiquities, p. 159; and Panchanan Mitra, Pre-historic India, pp. 76, 77, 138, 190-91, etc.

3. De Terra and Paterson, Studies on the Ice Age in India and Associated Human Cultures, pp. 312—26; Journal of the Department of Science, Calcutta University, Vol. V.

4. Studies on the Ice Age in India and Associated Human Cultures, p 314.

5. Indian Archaeology—A review, 1957-58, p. 67; 1958-59, p. 27; 1959-60, p. 60; 1960-61, p. 60.

Andhra Pradesh.[1] Interesting light on this point is expected to be thrown by the scientific excavation recently begun on the ancient site of Tripuri, an account of which appears in the article on Tewar in the Chapter on 'Places of Interest'. The early man has also left a few engravings on rocks, which indicate his artistic efforts. Two known examples of these drawings are found at Gata-Khera in Sihora tahsil and on a hill near Katni. One of them has crude carvings in white pigments.[2] Incidentally, a few bronze implements have been discovered at Jabalpur; but they are, in the opinion of antiquarians, either experimental or of foreign origin.[3] This was perhaps the last phase, before the Proto-Historic painted pottery people settled here. This is revealed through the stratigraphy of Tripuri excavations,[4] and pottery finds from Nirandpur and Kakarhata.[5]

Coming to the historical period, we find ample references about Tripuri in the Brahmanical literature. *Mahabharata* contains a story describing its foundations and how it got the name of Tripuri from which Tewar is said to be a modern derivation. We are told that it takes its name from three cities or *tripura* possessed by the *asuras.*[6] Another account says that during his *digvijaya* Shahadeva reached Traipura or Tripuri from Mahishmati, which was being ruled by king Nila under the protection of *Bhagavan Havyavahana*, the God of Fire[7] Puranic references about Tripuri are plentiful and corroborate the above traditions. The *Padmapurana* and *Lingapurana* describe the glories of the city ruined by Mahadeva.[8] Traipura which Rudra destroyed from Maheswara was, according to one account in *Matsyapurana*, inhabited by *Asura*[9] Bana, according

1. D. H. Gordon. The Pre-historic Background of Indian Culture, Bombay, 1960, p 12
2. Indian Archaeology, 1956-57, p. 19
3. Indian Antiquary, Vol. XXXIV, pp. 240-41.
4. The Saugar University Journal, 1952-53, pp. 78-79.
5. Indian Archaeology—A review, 1959-60, p. 69.
6. Mahabharata (Vangavasi Ed.), Sabha Parvan, Sarga 30, 1164; Vana Parvan, Sarga 253, 15246; Karna Parvan, Sargas 33 and 34.
7. Sabha Parvan (Ed., by Edgerton, Poona, 1944), Sarga 28, verses 1—38; also Vol. VI, Udyoga Parvan (Ed., by S. K. De, Poona, 1940). Sarga 139, verse, 23.
8. Padmapurana (Anandashrama Ed.) Vol. I, p. 19, Adikhanda Adhyayas 14-15; also Lingapurana (Ed by Panchanan Calcutta, S. 1812) Adhyaya 71.
9. Matsyapurana (Anandashrama Ed., Poona, 1907), Adhyaya 187-88, pp. 410-16.

to another in the same *Purana*, by Tarakasura.[1] Echoes of this legend also come from Rajashekhar's *Bal Ramayana* and some other later literary works.[2] Historically the skeleton of these stories may well be authentic and they, perhaps, refer to conflicts between various ancient clans for the control of this tract.[3] According to the *Avantyakhanda* of the *Skandapurana*, Avantipura was called Ujjayini to celebrate the victory achieved by Mahadeva, the presiding deity of Avanti, over the powerful demon Tripurasura, the lord of Tripuri.[4] Stripped of its allegorical myth the legend suggests that the people of Avanti rechristened their city as Ujjayini to commemorate their victory over a neighbouring state.

Darkness then descends upon the fortunes of Tripuri and the District sinks into oblivion, until we emerge into light of the Mauryan epoch. Some of the punch-marked coins found at Karachula and Tewar belonged to this period although some assign them to an earlier date.[5] The polished wares from Bhita, Patan and Tewar are similar to the well-known datable ceramic type called the 'North Black Polished Ware', which had its focus in the ancient Magadha.[6] At the last stated site this pottery has been firmly dated to 300 B. C. on the strength of number of datable structures. The existence of Asoka's Minor Rock Edict at Rupnath proves that his empire embraced this part of Madhya Pradesh. Rupnath having been a place of religious importance in Mauryan time may well have attracted Hindu pilgrims from various parts of the country and was therefore an excellent site for the edict. It was probably also along an important trade route. There was a highway from Pataliputra, up the Son valley, across the plateau to Rupnath, and then down the Narmada valley to Bhrigu-Kachcha Another route connecting Prayog with Bhrigu-Kachcha must certainly have passed via Rupnath following the Kaimur hills.[7] The spread of Buddhism in the region also

1. Matsyapurana (Anandshrama Ed. Poona, 1907), Adhyaya 138, but *see* also 129—40; pp 234—61
2. Bal Ramayana, Chapter III, verse 39
3. Journal of Numismatic Society of India, Vol XVI, pt I, p. 55. N L. De, conjectures that it alludes to the expulsion of the Buddhist by the Saivities (The Geographical Dictionary of Ancient and Mediaeval India, p 206).
4. Skandapurana (Vangavasi Ed), Adhyaya 43
5. Treasure Trove Report of the Central Provinces, No. 16, 1958; M G. Dixit, Tripuri—1952, pp 121—24 and Journal of Numismatic Society of India, Vol. XVI, pt. I, p. 55
6. Archaeology—A review, 1959-60, p. 69; Tripuri—1952, pp. 39-40, also Ancient India, No. I, pp. 55 ff.
7. Romila Thapar, Asoka and the Decline of the Mauryas pp. 234-35 For the text of Edict *see* Rupnath in Chapter XIX.

dates from the Asokan reign. The abundance of surviving sculptures point Jabalpur being an old and established centre of Buddism as late as the eleventh century A.D. At Gopalpur, about 17 miles from Jabalpur, were discovered five Buddhist images. Four of these were of Bodhisattavo-Avalokitesvara, while the fifth was of his consort Tara. From the inscriptions on one of them, it appears that the image was the gift of Denuva, the gate-keeper of Satka, son of a great lady worshipper Subhakta Kayasth. She belonged to the *Mahayana* School.[1] Tilwara ghat, a village on the banks of the Narmada, 9 miles from Jabalpur, has yielded an inscribed idol of Tara.[2] At Tewar itself was found the beautiful image of a Boddhisattava of *Mahayana* seated in the *Vajrasana* posture, with his two hands in the attitude of teaching.[3]

Tripuri is mentioned in coins assigned to latter half of the third century B C. on the palaeographic basis.[4] These rare pieces of copper or bronze, weighing 94 to 130 grains, have on the obverse a crescented hill by the side and a hollow cross and the legend *Tripuri* is written perpendicularly from the bottom. The reverse is plain According to Allan thev were not cast but "struck with that seal-like effect as if the die had been impressed on the hot metal."[5] From the coins it appears that Tripuri, like many other contemporary towns, emerged as a republican state after the collapse of Mauryan power. There are indications that influence of the realm of Tripuri was not confined to the city, but also extended to the neighbouring territory or even to the Western India.[6] After this period, probably the Kushan rulers had extended their dominion up to this region. This is proved by two images with inscriptions on them showing that they were installed by the daughter of, probably, the Saka King Bhuvaka or Bhumaka. The images were found near Bheraghat and are now kept in the Nagpur Museum.[7] Then followed a period of drakness until the curtain is lifted by the Satavahana

1. Epigraphia Indica, Vol. XVIII, pp. 73-74; *Jabalpur Jyoti*, p. 141
2. Hiralal, Inscriptions in C P and Berar, p. 40.
3. Cunningham, Archaeological Survey Report, Vol IX, p. 58
4. Journal of Numismatic Society of India, Vol. XIII, pt. I, p. 41. Allan attributes them to the 3rd or early 2nd century B C. (Catalogue of Coins of Ancient India in the British Museum, pp CXL-CXLI, plates 14-15) Rapson suggests 3rd century B C (Indian Coins, p. 14).
5. Allan, Catalogue of Coins of Ancient India in the British Museum, pp CXL-CXLI
6. Journal of Royal Asiatic Society, 1894, p 554 ; and Journal of Numismatic Society of India, Vol XIII, pt I, pp. 40 ff.
7. Hiralal, Inscriptions in C. P. and Berar, p. 38.

rulers. The number and variety of coins, as well as an epigraphic record, indicate that this region became an early possession of the Satavahanas. Towards the middle of the second century A, D, the fortunes of the Satavahanas suffered an eclipse, as the Saka Ksatra pas wrested this area from them. The conquerors did not, however, long enjoy the fruits of their victory, for it was soon recovered by Gautamiputra Yajna Satakarni who issued the silver coinage to commemorate this event.[1] Among the material remains we have a considerable number of lead and silver coins, Roman *faience bullae,* some sealings, and pottery of a type usually associated with the Satavahana period. These also point to a brisk commercial activity with foreign countries in this part during this period[2]

After the dismemberment of the Satavahana kingdom the history of Jabalpur District is mostly enveloped in darkness, which hides from our view the course of events.

As we enter upon the Gupta period, we find ourselves on firmer ground owing to the discovery of a series of contemporary inscriptions, and the history of Jabalpur regains interest and unity to a large extent. Samudragupta (c. 335-380 A, D,), the most illustrious member of the Gupta dynasty, is known to have carried his arms to the Southern and Central India. The route of his march to South can be traced in the light of order in which his campaigns are mentioned in Allahabad Pillar Inscription. Leaving the Jumna valley, Samudragupta appears to have marched through the former Rewa State and Jabalpur District before he encountered king Mahendra of Kosala, whose kingdom included districts of Bilaspur, Raipur and Sambalpur and also parts of Ganjam district. Later he reduced to complete subjugation (literally 'made servants of') the kings of all the forest states.[3] Eighteen such states are mentioned in the copper

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1. For controversies on this subject *see* Journal of Numismatic Society of India, Vol. XII, pt. II, pp. 94—97, 126—33; Vol. XIII, pt. I, pp. 46—52; Vol. XVI, pt. I, pp. 70, 95-96; Vol. XXI, pt. II, p. 110-11.

2. *Ibid*, Vol. XVI, pt. I, pp. 73—76 and 95-96.

3. Fleet, Corpus Inscription Indicarum, Vol. III, p. 13.

plate inscriptions of Parivrajaka king Hastin, and the Dabhal is one of them.[1] The Dabhala or Dahal country was coterminous with the Chedi country in Central India, with Tripuri as its capital.[2]

The Allahabad record mentions a group of five tribes. *viz.*, Abhiras, Prarjunas, Sanakanikas, Kakas and Kharaparikas, whose territory lay to the north and east of Bhilsa.[3] According to Smith[4] the Kharaparikas had their settlement in Seoni and Mandla districts, but a stone epigraph from Batiagarh, makes it possible to localise them in the neighbouring district of Damoh.[5] The above identifications prove that the southern boundary of Samudragupta's empire ran from Eran to Jabalpur and then followed the Vindhyan range. The Gupta rule in the subsequent period is confirmed by the archaeological finds. Such places as Bargaon, Sakaur, Rond, Tigwan, Kunda and Ghania offer a number of remains of this period in the shape of pillars, stones, temples, images, etc.[6]

The inscriptional evidence shows that Jabalpur District was ruled by a line of Parivrajaka Maharajas, so called because they descended from the kingly ascetic Susarman. They had their capital somewhere in the former Nagod State, on the borders of the Murwara tahsil, and six copper-plate grants of his dynasty have come to light. They belong to two rulers, Hastin (156-198, *i.e.*, from 475 to 517 A. D.), and his son Samkshobha (198-209, *i.e.*, from 518 to 528 A. D.) and refer to the "enjoyment of sovereignty of the Gupta king".[7] Although the name of the Gupta emperor is not given, it is beyond doubt that Hastin was feudatory of Budhagupta (476-95 A. D.). In these epigraphic records Hastin is described as the victor in many hundreds of battles, and the giver of thousands of cows, elephants, horses and gold pieces and also of many land.[8] His rule over Jabalpur is confirmed by a stone epigraph dated G. E.

1. *Ibid*, pp. 115-16.
2. Indian Historical Quarterly, 1951, pp. 250—54.
3. For the identification of names, *see* Corpus Inscriptionum Indicarum, Vol. III, p. 13, notes ; Allan, Catalogue of the Coins of the Gupta Dynasty, pp. XXI—XXX ; D. R. Bhandarkar, Indian Historical Quarterly, Vol. I, pp. 250—60; G. Ramdas, *Ibid*, Vol. I, p. 679; K. N. Dikshit, Proceedings, First Oriental Conference, Vol. I, p. CXXIV ; Jayaswal, Journal of Bihar—Orissa Research Society, March—June, 1933, p. 144.
4. Journal of Royal Asiatic Society, 1897, p. 893.
5. Indian Historical Quarterly, Vol. I, p. 258.
6. M. G. Dikshit, *Madhya Pradesh Ke Puratatva Ki Rooprekha, p. 49; Inscriptions in C. P. and Berar*, p. 45.
7. Corpus Inscriptionum Indicarum, Vol. III, pp. 95—97.
8. *Ibid.*

Siva-Parvati Tripureshwar Temple, Tripuri

Dancing Ganesh, Tripureshwar Temple, Tripuri

199 or 518 A. D. which says that Hastin, having received Dahala in inheritance, granted two villages Prastaravataka, and Dvarvatika in the province (*vishaya*) of Tripuri to a Brahmin. The afore-mentioned villages have been identified with Patpara (a deserted village) and Dwara, near Bilhari, about 9 miles from Katni-Murwara.[1] The khoh grant of Hastin dated 482-83 A. D. records a donation made by him of an *agrahara* situated in a *patta* with usual immunities from the taxes, *Udranga* and *Uparikara*, and freedom from the molestations of the military. The inscription contains interesting social data showing the strength of Brahmans in those days. The Brahman *gotras* mentioned are *Bharadvaja, Kautsa, Bhargava, Vasula* and *Aupamanyava* while the Vedic *Sakhas* included *Vajasaneya, Katha* and *Chhandoga-Kaulhuma.*

Contiguous to the Parivrajak kingdom, near the borders of Bijairaghogarh, lay another, with Uchchakalpa as their capital. There have been, in all, seven copperplate inscriptions of this dynasty discovered so far in Central India, from which we get the following names:—Oghadeva, Kumaradeva, Jayasvamin, Vyaghra, Jayanatha and Sarvanath. The Bhumara inscription shows, however, that Sarvanath was a contemporary of Maharaja Hastin, who ruled over the neighbouring territory.[2] Some controversy also exists about the era to which the dates of these records should be referred, some taking it to be the Kalachuri, and others, the Gupta era.[3] The absence of any reference of the Gupta sovereignty, in marked contrast to those of the Parivrajakas, makes it likely that they did not acknowledge the authority of the Guptas.

The advent of the Kalachuris opens a new epoch in the history of Jabalpur District. The name of the dynasty figures in many ways in inscriptions spread over a vast area and covering several centuries. While Kalachuri is the most usual style, and the most familiar to modern historians, Katachuri, Kalatsuri, Kalachuti, Kalachurya Kalichuri and other forms are known as variants. The name Kalachuri does not appear to be Sanskritic, and has indeed been connected with the Turkish word *Kuluchur* indicating an office of high rank. This, if correct, would point to a foreign origin for the dynasty,

1. Epigraphia Indica, Vol. VIII, p. 284; Inscriptions in C. P. and Berar p. 87.
2. Corpus Inscriptionum Indicarum, Vol. III, pp. 110—112.
3. For a detailed discussion *see* Epigraphia Indica, Vol. XXIII, pp. 171 ff.

and they may well have entered India with the Hunas and Gujaras.[1] In later times the family claimed descent from Kartavirya Arjuna of the Haihaya race, which, according to traditions preserved in the Epics and the Puranas, ruled the Narmada valley with Mahishmati as their capital.[2] The Kalachuri Kings used an era, called Chedi or Kalachuri *samvat*, according to which the reckoning commenced from September 25 in 249 A. D. This era, which continued in use for several centuries, and in countries widely separated, originated in Western India from the reign of Abhira Isvarasena.[3]

The early Kalachuris rose into prominence on the downfall of the Traikutaka dynasty in the sixth century A. D. From the provenance of the contemporary Kalachuri inscriptions it is clear that a branch of this celebrated dynasty was then ruling a fairly extensive territory comprising portions of Gujarat, Khandesh and Malwa. Three kings, Krishnaraja, his son Sankaragana, and the latter's son Buddharaja, are named in copper plate grants; the last came into conflict with the early Chalukya ruler Mangalesa of Badami in c. 601 A. D.[4] The names of Buddaraja's successors are not known, but they, probably, continued to rule at Mahishmati in a state of servitude comparable to that of the Alupas, Gangas, Kalabhras and others under the Chalukyas. But their stubborn spirit and the memory of their past achievements did not allow them to remain in a subordinate position for a long time. After the Chalukyas were overthrown by the Rashtrakutas, the Kalachuris succeeded in carving out a principality in the Dahal country, which included the District of Jabalpur and the now extinct states of Maihar and Nagod, with parts of Rewa and Panna, and extended upto the source of the Narmada[5] Vamaraja undertook this enterprise in the end of the

1. Proceedings, Indian History Congress, 1943, pp 41-15 Fleet connects them with the Arjunayanas of Samudragupta Pillar Inscription (Corpus Inscriptionum Indicarum, Vol. III, p 10) while Hiralal identifies them with the Traikutakas (Annals of Bhandarkar Oriental Research Institute, Vol. IX, pp 283-84). For a mythological account of the Kalachuris see Jayanaka's *Prithvirajavijaya*, verses 110—130. A legend says that the progenitor of the Haihayas was the mythical Ahihaya (literally snake —horse) who was born out of a union of snake with a mare

2. Pargiter, Ancient Indian Historical Traditions, pp. 41, 102, 144, etc.

3. This subject is exhaustively treated by V. V. Mirashi in Corpus Inscriptionum, Vol. IV, pt. I, pp. I—XXX.

4. Indian Antiquary, Vol. XIX, *pp. 17-18* ; *Vol. VII*, p. *161* ; and Epigraphia Indica, Vol. VI, p. 8

5. Indian Historical Quarterly, 1951, pp. 250—54.

seventh century A. D. Like the founders of many other dynasties, we do not possess much information about him personally. He is known to have annexed the central portion of Uttar Pradesh and expanded it into a large kingdom which covered practically the entire territory between the rivers Gomti and Narmada.[1] He took the imperial titles *Paramabhattaraka, Maharajadhiraja* and *Paramesvara,* to which his successors are also known to have laid a claim. As the founder of the kingdom of Tripuri, Vamdeva was held in great veneration, as we find it stated in the records of his successors that they meditated at his feet.[2]

Since the time of Vamaraja, the Kalachuris came to be known as Chaidyas or lords of the Chedi country. As Pargiter has shown, Chedi was originally the name of the country along the south bank of the Yamuna from Chambal in the north-west to the Karvi in the south-east. Its limits southward were the plateau of Malwa and the undulating hills of Bundelkhand.[3] In mediaeval times, however, it came to signify the region adjoining Jabalpur which remained under the control of the Kolachuris almost till their downfall.[4] Vamaraja seems to have transferred his capital from Mahishmati to Tripuri "made noisy by the waves of the moon's daughter, that is, the Narmada."

Two or three generations seem to have separated Vamaraja from Sankaragana I of Tripuri. Unfortunately, our data for the history of this period are meagre, and we have to depend on casual literary references. Perhaps Mayuraja, the author of the Sanskrit play *Udattaraghava,* was one of the princes ruling in this period[5] Another Sanskrit poet, Bhimata, whom Rajashekhar describes as the 'Lord of Kalanjar', also probably belonged to the same dynasty. He is credited with the authorship of five Sanskrit plays, of which *Svapanadasanan* was held to be the best.[6]

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1. For details, *see* Indian Historical Quarterly, Vol. XXXIII, pp. 11 ff; A Volume of Eastern and Indian Studies presented to Prof. F. W. Thomas, pp. 152 ff D. C. Sarkar regards him a Saiva ascetic (Epigraphia Indica, Vol. XXX, p. 46 ff. and Journal of U. P. Historical Society, 1952, p. 227).

2. This finds epigraphic corroboration in records of seven Kings, Karna, Yasahkarna, Narsimha, Jayasimha, Viajayasimha, Sankaragana and Trailokyavarman, *see* V. S. Pathak, History of the Saiva Cults in Northern India, p. 36.

3. Journal of Asiatic Society of Bengal, 1957, pp. 249—58.

4. Indian Historical Quarterly, 1951, pp. 250 ff.

5. Jalhan, *Suktimuktavali,* pp. 46, 314, 318.

6. *Ibid,* pp. 46, 157.

Of Sankaragana I only two records have been found; and both, on palaeographic grounds, can be referred to about the middle of the eighth century A. D. He was apparently a king of some note, and his imperial *titles indicate* widespread dominions and authority.[1] After Sankaragana's death the earlsest king, whose name has been recorded in an inscription, is Lakshmanaraja I (c. 825-850 A. D.). In the period that intervened between the reigns of these two kings, there was a great political ferment in the history of north India. The most interesting feature of this epoch was the tripartite struggle that continued intermittently between the Pratiharas, the Palas, and the Rashtrakutas. Eventually the Rashtrakuta ruler Dhruva Govind III, vanquished the rival states, and acquiring Malwa Kosala, Vanga (Eastern Bengal), and Odraka (Orissa) countries, made his servants rule them. In the case of the Kalachuris, however, he did not supplant the ruling prince but made him acknowledge his suzerainty.[2] Later on, the Rashtrakutas, from time to time, entered into marriage alliances with the rulers of Tripuri, and thus made the Kalachuri kingdom a bulwark on the north of the Narmada against any possible invasion of their territory by the Gurjara Pratiharas.

Lakshmanaraja appears to have been succeeded by Kokalla I (c. 850-885 A. D.), but it is not known what relationship they bore to each other.[3] He was the first member of the family to raise its fortune and to give it a distinction.[4] He extended the sphere of its influence by forming new alliances with contemporary rulers like Rashtrakuta Krishna II, who, as the Cambay plates tell us, married the daughter of Kokalla. an 'ornament' of Sahasrarjuna[5]

He himself married a princess named Natta or Nattadevi, who belonged to the Chandela lineage. The Kalachuris equated this union with the divine couples of Sachi and Indra, Kamala and Upendra, Uma and Chandramauli.[6] Kokalla I. undoubtedly, laid the foundation of the future greatness of the Kalachuri kingdom whose strength and resources were equal to no other contemporary

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1. Cropus Inscriptionum Indicarum Vol IV, pt 1, pp 175-76 and 178
2. This inference is based on the Karitalai stone inscription (Corpus Inscriptionum Indicarum, Vol. IV, Ins No 37, achievements of his Rashtrakuta over-lords, Govind IV and his son Amoghavarsha I)
3. Mirashi says Kokalla I may have been the son of Lakshmanaraja (Corpus Inscriptionum Indicarum, Vol. IV, p LXXII)
4. According to R C *Mujumdar (The Age of Imperial Kanauj*, p 87), the date of accession of Kokalla I is 845 A. D
5. Epigraphia Indica, Vol. VII, p. 38.
6. Corpus Inscriptionum Indicarum, Vol. IV, pt. I, p. 246.

state, whether in the north or south. Shortly after his accession Kokalla seems to have vanquished Pratihara Bhoj of Kanauj and his vassals, the Kalachuri Sankaragana (of Sarayupura in U. P.), the Guhila Harsha Raj (of Dhohad) and Chahamana Guveka of Sakambhari; and carried away their treasures. In the course of his excursions in Rajputana he defeated the Turushkas, who were obviously Turkish soldiers in the service of the Arab Governors of Sind. He also plundered the wealth of the King of Vanga, probably Kantideva. The Bilhari stone inscription mentions Kokalla setting up two unique columns, Krishnaraja in the south and Bhojadeva in the north.[1] We further learn from another inscription that Kokalla I gave protection to Bhoja. Vallabha, Shri Harsha, the King of Chitrakuta and king Sankaragana.[2] Perhaps the protege of the Chedi ruler in north was Bhoja I of the Gurjara Pratihara dynasty, who flourished from c. 835 to 885 A. D.[3] Kokolla I seems to have espoused his cause when Bhoja I had to contend against the mighty Devapala of Bengal (c. 810-855 A. D.). After the war with the Pala king Kokalla I entered into a matrimonial alliance with him. Vallabha is none other than the Rashtrakuta king, Krishna II Akalavarsha who got this aid presumably in his wars with the Eastern Chalukya ruler Vijayaditya III (844-88 A. D.) of Vengi. Shri Harsha, the lord of Chitrakuta, who also is said to have received protection is usually taken to be Chandella Harshdeva, the successor of Rahila and predecessor of Yasovarman.[4] Sankaragana is more likely to be the homonymous prince of the subordinate branch of the Kalachuri dynasty which had settled in the Gorakhpur district of Uttar Pradesh.[5] In the Amoda plate of Prithvideva I, dated K. 831 or 1079 A. D., Kokalla I is represented as having "conquered the whole earth" and plundered the treasuries of a number of his royal contemporaries, but much reliance cannot be placed on such boastful

1. *Ibid*, p. 217.

2. *Ibid*, p. 246

3. For discussion on this subject see Kielhorn in Epigraphia Indica, Vol. I, p. 253 Cf. R. C. Majumdar, History of Bengal, Vol. I, p. 128; H. C. Ray, Dynastic History of Northern India, Vol. II, p. 754; Indian Historical Quarterly, Vol. XIII, pp. 480 ff and Vol. XVII, p. 117. Others indentify Bhoj referred to in these records with Bhoj II, son and successor of Mahipala, as Bhoja I, who was a mighty ruler holding a wide sway could not have owed his position to Kokalla. For the latter view *see* R. D. Banerji, Palas of Bengal, p. 65, R. S. Tripathi, History of Kanauj, pp. 255-56 and Journal of the Royal Asiatic Society, 1904, p. 651.

4. Epigraphia Indica, Vol. II, p. 301; N. P. Bose, History of Chandellas, pp. 25-26 and the note. Mirashi Indentifies *Chitrakutabhupal* Harsha with Shri Harsha (Guhila) Chaus inscription, Corpus Inscriptionum Indicarum, Vol. IV, pt. I, p. LXXV.

5. Corpus Inscriptionum Indicarum, Vol. IV, pt. I, pp. LXXV-LXXVI.

claims,[1] He enjoyed a long reign of forty years from *c.* 850 to 885 A. D.[2] He had eighteen sons of whom the eldest became the king of Tripuri while others were given appanages and were appointed over the different *mandalas* which corresponded to the modern districts.

Kokalla I was succeeded by his son Sankaragana II, also called Ranavigraha, Prasiddhadhavala or Mugdhatunga, the last one being a typical Rashtrakuta epithet[3] Of Sankaragana's exploits we learn nothing further than that he wrested Pali from the lord of Kosala and placed one of his brothers in charge of it. This Kosala is probably *Dakshina* Kosala comprising roughly the present Chhattisgarh and the adjoining country on the east. It was certainly Pali of that principality which Sankaragana is said to have snatched from its master Vikramaditya I of the Bana dynasty. who built an exquisitely carved temple and has left an inscription incised over the door of its *garbhagriha*[4]. He was defeated by the Eastern Chalukya King Vijayaditya III when he went to the aid of his brother-in-law, the Rashtrakuta King Kirshna II[5].

In *c.* A. D. 910 Sankaragana was succeeded by his son Balaharsha, who may be presumed to have ruled upto A D. 915. Since we have no records of his reign, the history of his times is imperfectly known. He seems to have died sonless for he was succeded by his brother Yuvarajadeva I.

Yuvarajadeva's claim to the remembrance of history rests not merely on his military exploits, but still more on the enlightened character of his government and his encouragement to Saivism and learning. The author of Bilhari inscription does not give the details of his military career, but praises his patron as a connoisseur of female beauty, who sported with the damsels of Bengal, Karnataka, Gujarat, Kashmir and Orissa[6]. This is further corroborated by

1. Corpus Inscriptionum Indicarum, Vol. IV, pt I, pp 407-08
2. According to R C Majumdar (The Age of Imperial Kanuj, pp. 87-88) the years of his reign are C 845—888 A D.
3. His *biruda* Ranavigraha figures in the Rashtrakuta plates (Epigraphia Indica, Vol VII p 38, Indian Antiquary Vol XII p 250) and is also cited in Jalhan's *Suktimuktavali*, p 16.
4. According to the local tradition Ratanpur, the capital of Kosala during this period extended upto Pali which is 12 miles from the place For description of the temples see Bilaspur District Gazetteer, 1910, p. 286
5. The Age of Imperial Kanauj, pp 88-89.
6. Corpus Inscriptionum Indicarum, Vol. IV, p. 218.

Viddhasalabhanjika which attributes a 'goodly assortment' of wives, as Wilson expresses it, to Karpuravarsha, the counterpart of Yuvarajadeva[1]. These were from the provinces of Magadha, Malwa, Panchala, Avanti, Jalandhara and Kerala, and the princesses of Lata and Kuntala were added to this collection at the end of the drama. Probably there is some historical truth in these statements, as they indicate that Yuvarajadeva raided the afore-mentioned countries and married the beautiful and accomplished ladies from there. His another epithet, '*Ujjayini bhujanga*' suggests the conquest of Malwa[2]. But the crowning achievements of his military career was the successful intervention in the dynastic dispute which placed his protege, Amoghavarsh III, on the Rashtrakuta throne in *c*. 935 A. D. The *Viddhasalabhanjika* seems to have been staged at Tripuri in jubilation at this great victory over a formidable confederacy of southern kings[3]. These successes spurred the ambitions of Yuvarajadeva, who, like his predecessors, assumed the title of *Paramesvara*. Rajashekhar has given him two other epithets as well, *viz*., *Chakravartin* (World conqueror) and *Trikalingadhipati* (Lord of three Kalingas) An estimate of Yuvarajadeva, as a conqueror and ruler, is given by an epigraph of his enemies which describes him as one who had planted his foot on the heads of famous kings[4]. The closing years of his reign, however, seem to have been disturbed by a defeat suffered at the hands of Yasovarman, who ruled over the neighbouring kingdom of Jejakabhukti.

Great as was Yuvarajadeva I in war greater was he still in the arts of peace One of them was the patronage of the men of learning. The most shining light in his literary coterie was undoubtedly, Rajashekhar who has left a number of works of varying merit, like the *Karpurmanjari*, *Balaramayan*, *Balabharata*, *Kavyamimamsa*, etc. Incidentally, his reign coincides with the revival and the creative period of Saivisim. He invited, under the influence of his queen Nohala, several *Acharyas* of the Mattamayura clan and built magnificent temples of Siva and monasteries for them at Gurgi Masaun (Rewa), Chandrehi (Sidhi), Bilhari and other places. Near his own capital at Bheraghat, he bu lt a round hypaethral structure dedicated to the sixty-four *yoginis*. Form its round shape the temple was known as

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1. Wilson, Select specimens of the Theatre of the Hindus, Vol. II, p. 355; also Indian Antiquary, Vol. XXXIV, pp 177-79.
2. In the Bilhari inscription he is also given the credit of conquering the Gaudas and their ruler the Palas
3. Indian Antiquary, Vol. IX, pp. 61-63; Vol. LXII, pp. 35-37.
4. Khajuraho stone Inscription of Yasovarman of V. S. 1011, Ed, by Keilhorn, Epigraphia Indica, Vol. I, pp. 123—35.

Golaki. The *matha* or monastery established by its side became well known as Golaki *matha*[1]. The Malkapuram inscription of Rudrama devi, the daughter and successor of Ganapatideva, gives an interesting and detailed account of the Saiva teachers of Golaki *matha*[2]. The account runs thus: In the country known as Dahala *mandala* situated between the rivers Bhagirathi and Narmada, there flourished a line of Saiva teachers whose founder was Durvasa. In this line appeared Sadbhava Sambhu. He received from the Kalachuri monarch Yuvarajadeva the Three-lakh Province (that is, a province in which there were three lakhs of villages) as a maintenance gift (*bhiksha*). The Saiva ascetic founded a Saiva monastery called Golaki *matha*, and gave away that province for the maintenance of the teachers of that *matha*. Soma Sambhu, who was born as a member of the same line, composed, with a title taken from his own name, a work called *Soma-sambhu-paddhati* which was like a bridge to the ocean of all the scriptures. After Soma Sambhu came Vama Sambhu, whose feet also were worshipped by the Kalachuri kings. In this Golaki *matha* appeared *gurus* and their disciples in thousands, who had the power to bless or curse the kings of the earth by their mere appearance before them. As time passed there came into being in this line a sage called Sakti Sambhu His immediate disciple was Kirti Sambhu. Then appeared Vimala Siva, a native of the Kerala country, who was highly respected by Kalachuri monarchs. His favourite scholar was the Saiva saint, Dharma Siva. And in turn his spiritual son was Visvesvara Sambhu, the crest-jewel of Purvagrama in the province of Radha of the Gauda country, and a great Vedic scholar It was he who administered the initiation to the Kakatiya king Ganapatideva. The Chola and Malwa kings too were devotees of this Visvesvara who was also the preceptor of the Kalachuri monarchs. The account comprises most of what we know of the Golaki-*matha* and of the line of the Saiva teachers connected with it. These pontiffs of the Golaki-*matha* are also said in many inscriptions to have belonged to the Golaki-*vamsa* or religious lineage, and are called *Bhiksha-matha-Santana* or *Lakshadhyavi-Santana*, i.e., "the descendants of *gurus* supported by a monastery, endowed with a *bhiksha* or maintenance gift or with the lakh-gift". These Saiva teachers exerted great influence on the Kalachuri kings of Chedi, the Kakatiya kings of Warangal, and the kings of Malwa

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1. Rai Bahadur Hiralal in his very interesting article on the Golaki-*matha* discusses at some length how that *matha* got this name (Journal of Bihar and Orissa Research Society, Vol. XIII, pt. 1, pp. 137—144).

2. South Indian Inscriptions, Vol. X, No. 395, pp. 205—09; Journal of Andhra Historical Research Society, Vol. IV, p. 146 ff.

and of the Chola countries. The Golaki-*matha* had its branches in Cudappah, Kurnool, Guntur and North Arcot districts of the Madras state.

Yuvarajadeva I had a very learned and capable Brahman minister named Bhakamisra, the prototype of Bhagurayana, who figures in the *Viddhasalabhanjika*. Another minister of his was Gollaka, who caused colossal images of the incarnations of Vishnu to be carved out of rocks at Bandhogarh where he had left his inscriptions.

Yuvarajadeva I was followed by Lakshmanaraja II (*c.* 945-970 A. D.), who was his son by his favourite queen Nohala. Very probably he was defeated by the Rashtrakuta ruler Krishna III, who, as the Kanarese inscriptions from Jura suggest, marched once more through the Dahal country after his accession, as he had done before that event in *c.* A. D. 938[1]. Faced with a rupture in the *entente* between the two families, Lakshmanaraja gave the hand of his daughter, Bonthadevi, to the Chalukya emperor Vikramaditya IV, whose son Tailapa II (956–997 A.D.) was destined to supplant the Rashtrakutas in the Deccan.

Following in the footsteps of his illustrious predecessor, Lakshmanaraja pursued a militant policy and raided distant countries. He waged hostilities against south Kosala and overcame its Chief. He is also reputed to have invaded Odra or Orissa and to have despoiled its king of an effigy of Kaliya (Naga) wrought with gold and jewels. He later consecrated this effigy to Siva at the famous temple of Somesvara or Somanath Pattan in Gujarat where he had dedicated a chariot[2]. As Lakshmanaraja was probably contemporary of the western Chalukya ruler Mularaja, it is possible that he had to defeat him while going to Somanath[3]. His invasion of the Pandya country seems to be corroborated by the Karitalai inscription which states that his forces encamped on the banks of the Tamraparni[4]. He is further said to have defeated a Gurjara king who is regarded as one of the weak successors of Mahipala[5].

1. Epigraphia Indica, Vol XIX, pp. 207-09; A. S Altekar, Rashtrakutas and their Times, pp. 113-14 Mirashi, however, discounts such possibility (Corpus Inscriptionum Indicarum, Vol IV, pt I, p LXXXV) Jura is a small hamlet, 12 miles from Maihar Railway station in Sat a district.
2. Corpus Inscriptionum Indicarum. Vol, IV, pt. I, p. 221
3. A. K. Majumdar, Chalukyas of Gujarat, p. 31.
4. Corpus Indiscriptionum Indicarum, Vol. IV, pt. I, pp. 191 and 260.
5. For this identification *see* R. D. Banerji, Haihayas of Tripuri and their Monuments, p. 13.

Lakshmanaraja is represented in the inscriptions to have shown his religious fervour by "presents sent through well conducted messengers" and inviting the Saiva *guru* Hridayasiva. He was given the monastery of holy Vaidyanath at Bilhari, 8 miles west by south of Murwara in Jabalpur District. Another Saiva teacher Aghorasiva, was placed in charge of the temple of Nohalesvara situated somewhere on the main road between Jabalpur and Damoh[1]. Himself a staunch Saiva, the Kalachuri king is said to have donated several villages to a Vishnu temple at Karitalai. His minister Somesvara, son of Bhakamisra, was a versatile genius. He was proficient not only in the sacred lore, but also in music and other fine arts[2]. He built a temple of the Boar Incarnation of Vishnu under the name Somasvamin and settled eight Brahmans there, for whose maintenance the king donated the village of Dirghasakhika, modern Dighi, six miles south-east of Karitalai[3]. Besides these, the income from several taxes and tolls was also assigned to the deity[4].

The death of Lakshmanaraja II marks the beginning of a period of decline of the Kalachuri dynasty. His son, Sankaragana III (*c.* 970—980 A. D.), was defeated by the Chandela ruler Krishna or Krishnapa, whose kingdom was conterminous with his own on the west[5].

Yuvarajadeva II (*c.* 980—990 A. D.) was the next member of the dynasty During his reign the fortunes of the Kalachuris sank to such a low level that their capital Tripuri was pillaged by the Paramara Vakpati Munja. who 'conquering Yuvaraja, and slaying his generals, as victor, raised on high his word on Tripuri[6]'. The ignominy of this defeat so enraged the Kalachuri nobles that they placed his son on the throne even when he was a minor. The greatness and prestige of the Kalachuri family had thus already diminished when Kokalla II succeeded to the throne in about 990 A.D. The Gurgi inscription ascribes some notable victories to him, but there is nothing to show that he attained any distinction. A mere lad at the time of accession, Kokalla was not equal to the task of governing in that turbulent age. During his reign the Muslims of the North-West turned longing eyes

1. Corpus Inscriptionum Indicarum, Vol. IV, pt. I, p. LXXXIV and note.
2. *Ibid*, p. 192.
3. *Ibid*, p. 194.
4. *Ibid*, p. 195.
5. Journal of Asiatic Society of Bengal, Vol. XXXI, p. 3; Annual Report of the Archaeological Department of Gwalior State, 1930-31, p. 10, also S K Mitra, The Early Rulers of Khajuraho, pp 53-54
6. Epigraphia Indica, Vol. I, p. 235.

towards the fertile plains of India. His name, however, does not figure in the list of leading rulers who attempted to stem the tide of their advance into the interior of the country[1].

After the passing away of Kokalla II in *c.* 1015 A. D., the crown devolved upon his son Gangeya, who appears to have started as a feudatory of the Chandelas[2]. At the very start of his career Gangeya attempted the consolidation of the Kalachuri power, which had received a rude shock during the feeble government of his predecessors. First, he formed a confederacy with the Paramara Bhoja and the Chola Rajendra and attacked Chalukya Jayasimha II from three sides[3]. But the latter proved to be a foe worthy of his steel, and it is alleged, he completely routed the allied forces[4].

Undaunted by this reverse, Gangeya directed his energies towards the east where he won victories near the sea-coast[5]. He attacked the ruler of South Kosala, Mahasivagupta Yayati, who boasts to have defeated the people of the Chedi country and carried fire and sword into their home province of Dahala[6]. Then he conquered the ruling king of Orissa, Subhakara II, with the help of Kamalaraja of the Kalachuri family of Tummana[7]. Soon after 1027 A. D.. Gangeya embarked on a bold policy of conquest and annexation. Throwing off the yoke of Chandela suzerainty he overran Northern India up to the Kira country or Kangra valley, and annexed Pravaga and Banaras after the downfall of the Pratiharas[8]. The *Tarikh-i-Baihaqi* definitely testifies that the latter place was in possession of Ganga (Gangeya) when Ahmad Niyal-tigin, Governor of the Punjab, under Sultan Masud, invaded it in 424 A. H. or 1033 A D.[9] Some say his suzerainty was recognised even in distant Tirhut[10]. There are also

1. For the controversy *see* S. H. Hodivala, Studies in Indo-Muslim History, Vol. I, p 146 ff. He identifies Kokalla II with Kulchand, the 'Statanic leader,' who fought at Mahavan near Mathura
2. This is inferred on the evidence of titles mentioned in the Makundpur Stone Inscription, dated 1019 A.D., Annals of Bhandarkar Research Institute, Vol. XXIII, 1942, p 296.
3. Epigraphia Indica, Vol. XV, p. 330.
4. Indian Antiquary, Vol V, p 17.
5. Corpus Inscriptionum Indicarum. Vol. IV, pt I, p 273
6. Journal of Asiatic Society of Bengal (New series), Vol. I, 1905, pp. 6-7.
7. Corpus Inscriptionum Indicarum. Vol. IV, pt II, p. 408
8. *Ibid*, pt. I, p. 261.
9. Tarikh-i-Baihaqi, Ed. by Morley, p. 197; Elliot and Dowson, History of India as told by its own Historians, Vol II, pp 223-121 and 205
10. Bendall, 'History of Nepal' Journal of Asiatic Society of Bengal, 1903, pt. I, p. 18 of reprint. Mirashi, however, rejects this interpretation, (Annals of Bhandarkar Oriental Research Institute, Silver Jubilee, Vol. p. 291 ff.)

grounds to believe that Gangeya's arms had penetrated as far as Anga (modern Bhagalpur and Monghyr districts) and even beyond it in Magadha where the Pala king Nayapala was then ruling[1]. His power was, however, temporarily eclipsed by the rise of Bhoja Paramara, who won a victory over him[2].

Gangeya assumed the title of Vikramaditya, and is described as conqueror of the universe (*Jit-vishva*) in a Chandela inscription discovered at Mahoba[3]. His fame spread far and wide. Al Beruni noted as early as in 1030 A. D., that Gangeya was ruling at Dahala, the capital of which was Tiauri or Tripuri[4]. He introduced the Lakshmi type of coinage which became very popular with the Chandelas, the Gahadavalas and the Tomars and was used in distant Kashmir[5]. He was fond of residing at the foot of the holv banyan tree at Prayaga, where he fixed his residene· The Banaras plates of Karna issued on the *Samvatsara sraddha* ceremonv of his father record that Gangeya found salvation at Prayaga on 22 January, 1041 A D.

Lakshmikarna or Karna, son and successor of Gangeya, was an able and ambitious prince who aimed at attaining the position of paramount power in Northern India, and succeeded to a considerable extent. His authority was recognised over a widelv extended dominion including Banaras which became his capital. He defeated and dethroned a king of Vanga or eastern Bengal who is identical either with Govindchandra or his successor. He then turned southwards, and came to grips with Rajendra Chola I (1044—1054 A. D.) whom he worsted[6]. While in the south he also encountered the king of Kuntala[7]. Next he subdued his Chandela contemporary identified with Devavarman[8]. In the east the Kalachuri monarch came into conflict with both Navapala and his son Vigrahapala III, but the

1 Corpus Inscriptionum Indicarum, Vol. IV, pt. I p 261. The vanquished king may have been Mahipala I (988—1038 A D) Studies in Indo-Muslim History, Vol. I p 141.

2. Epigraphia Indica, Vol VIII, p. 101; Vol I, p 235, Vol XIX, p 71; and also Ray's Dynastic History of Northern India, Vol II, p 186

3 Epigraphia Indica, Vol. I, p. 222

4. Al Beruni, Kitabul-Hind, Tr by Sachau, Vol I, p 201.

5 Rapson, Indian Coins, p. 33, also Cunningham, Coins of Mediaeval India, pp 80 and 87.

6 Corpus Inscriptionum Indicarum, Vol. IV, pt. II, p 641.

7. *Ibid* Bilhan says (*Vikramanka devacharita*, Canto I, verse 102-3) that Ahavamalla, *i e*, Somesvara I (1044-68 A D) utterly destroyed the power of Karna after which glory never embraced the country of Dahala.

8 Bilhan speaks of Karna as 'death to the lord of the Kalanjara fortress' (*Vikramanka deva-charita* Canto XVIII, verse, 93) Krishna Misra (*Prabodha-chandrodaya* line 6, 10, 19) says that the race of Moon, *i e* the Chandelas were dethroned by the lord of Chedi

latter appears to have got the upper hand in this trial of strength[1]. He joined Bhima I, king of Gujarat, in crushing Bhoja, the learned ruler of Malwa, about A. D. 1060. According to Merutunga's account Karna violated the previous agreement and annexed the whole of Malwa. This enraged Bhima I who invaded the Chedi country[2]. Hemchandra in his *Dvyasrayakavya* says that Bhima penetrated in to the capital of the Chedi country, but Karna made peace by presenting him horses, elephants, and the golden pavilion (*mandapika*) of Bhoja which he had carried away.[3] This brilliant career of victory, however, had a tragic end. Towards the close of his reign, Karna suffered a series of defeats. Not fewer than five kings, namely, the Chandratreya Kirtivarman, the Paramara Udayaditya, the Pala Vigrahapala III, the Chalukya Somesvara I of Kalyana and Chalukya Bhima I of Anahilapataka, claim to have defeated him. Unable to bear the burden of sovereignty Karna in his last days, probably, abdicated in favour of Yasahkarna, his son by Avalladevi of the Huna race.

Karna is rightly regarded as the most mighty Kalachuri potentate A magniloquent verse in the Bheraghat inscription of Narasimha states that the Pandya and Huna Kings and the rulers of Murala, Kunga, Vanga Kalinga and Kira were panic-striken when Karna gave a full play to his valour[4]. The Karanbel stone inscription shows that Chola, Kunga, Huna, Gauda, Gurjara and Kira used to wait upon him[5]. According to *Rasmala* one hundred-and-thirty-six kings were in attendance upon him[6]. He was a great builder. and erected at Banaras a twelve storeyed temple called Karnameru which was probably dedicated to Siva He also built a *ghat* called *Karnatirtha* at Prayaga where his Goharwa grant was made. He established a settlement of learned Brahmins which he named Karnavati after himself This place is believed to be Karnab, now a small village near Tewar, but from the descriptions in the grants of Yasahkarna, it would appear that it was situated somewhere on the banks of the Ganga. Like many kings of antiquity, Karna encouraged the culti-

1 Journal of Buddhist Text Society, Vol I, 1893, p 9 ff; also S C. Das 'IndianPundits in the land of Snow', Journal of Asiatic Society of Bengal, 1891, p 51.

2. *Prabandhachintamani*, p 51.

3. Hemachandra, *Dvyasrayakavya*, Canto IX, verse 57. The description of pavilion is probably given in the Tarikh-i-Yamini of Al Utbi History of India as told by its own Historians Vol II, p 35

4 Corpus Inscriptionum Indicarum, Vol IV, pt I, p. 319.

5. *Ibid*

6 Forbes, *Rasmala*, Ed. by H. G. Rawlinson, Vol I, p. 89.

vation of polite letters. Even now stories about his munificence are current in Banaras[1].

His successor Yasahkarna (1073—1123 A. D.) is said to have ravaged Champaranya (modern Champaran in Bihar) and 'extirpated with ease' the Andhra ruler who is identified with the Eastern Chalukya Vijayaditya VII of Vengi[2]. He assumed the same grandiloquent titles as Karna, but he had neither the ambitions nor genius to arrest the steady decline of his family fortunes. The Paramars paid off old scores against the Kalachuris by sacking their capital Tripuri. The Nagpur *prasasti* tells us that the city was stormed by Lakshmadeva (1086 - 1094 A. D.) who, after annihilating his warlike and spirited adversaries, encamped on the bank of the Reva, his elephants allaying the fatigue of the battle in the stream of the river[3]. In the north, the Gahadavalas aggrandised themselves at the cost of the Kalachuris by annexing Kanauj, Banaras, and the region situated between the Yamuna and Son[4]. The Chandela Sallakshanavarman (100—1110 A. D.) also claims to have taken away the fortunes of the Malwas and the Chedis[5]. Belgami inscription of Vikramaditya VI, dated 1081 A. D., refers to the Chalukya ruler's victory over Yasahkarna[6]. From the *Kirtikaumudi* we learn that the Chalukya Chief Karna drove the Kalachuris from Lata and occupied the country[7] According to Merutunga, the king of the Dahala country wrote Siddharaja a letter of alliance (*Yamala-patra*). This Kalachuri king may have been Yasahkarna who, as we have seen, probably suffered a defeat at the hands of Karna[8]. With the loss of these provinces the Kalachuri kingdom shrank to the home province of Dahala and Tripuri became its sole capital.

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1. Indian Antiquary, Vol. XVI, p. 46 ff.
2. Corpus Inscriptionum Indicarum, Vol IV, pt I, pp 296—99 and 305; pt. II, pp 635 -636
3. Epigraphia Indica, Vol. II, p 188.
4. Roma Niyogi, The History of the Gahadavala Dynasty, pp 71-75
5. Ajayagadh Rock Inscription of Viravarman V. S 1317, Ed by Kielhorn, Epigraphia Indica, Vol I, pp 325—30.
6. Annual Report of the Archaeological Survey of Mysore, 1929, pp. 133 and 137.
7. Somesvara, *Kirtikaumudi*, Ed. by A V. Kathvate, Canto II, verse 22, See also Chaulukyas of Gujarat, p 77.
8. *Prabandhachintamani*, Ed. by Jinavijava Muni, p. 64

The next Kalachuri ruler was Gayakarna whose dates range from 1123 to 1151 A. D. During his reign the Chandela Madanavarman (1134—1164 A. D.) won some military successes[1], and the Ratanpur branch of the Kalachuri asserted its independence in the South Kosala[2]. The numismatic finds further prove that he lost territory north of the Kaimur range[3]. Gayakarna married Alhanadevi, daughter of Vijayasimha, the Guhila prince of Pragvata or Mevad, and Syamaladevi who was herself the daughter of Udayaditya, the lord of the Malwa *mandala*. This alliance not only united two royal families but also went a long way to heal sores of many generations. Alhanadevi had two sons, Narasimha who succeeded his father, and Jayasimha who 'like Lakshmana did marvellous service to his elder brother'[4]. A literary tradition preserved in *Prabandha-chintamani* states that Gayakarna, while seated on an elephant, had fallen asleep, and the golden chain round his neck having been caught in an overhanging branch of a tree resulted in his being strangled to death[5].

Of Narasimha (1153—1163 A. D.), his successor, only three inscriptions are found. The Bheraghat inscription dated 1155 A. D. records the construction by Alhanadevi, of a temple of Siva under the name Vaidyanatha together with a monastery, a hall of study and a row of gardens attached to it. She endowed the temple with a gift of two villages and placed it in charge of a Pasupata ascetic Rudrarasi[6]. The other two inscriptions indicate that Narasimha recovered from the Chandelas a portion of his ancestral dominion north of the Kaimur range[7]. He was a devotee of Siva and his spiritual preceptor Kirtisiva is said to have contributed to his prosperity. Perhaps, he died without a son and was succeeded by his brother Jayasimha.

Jayasimha appears to have been an ambitious and energetic king. The Jabalpur plates of his reign credit him with consequests over Gurjaras, Turushkas, Kuntala and other kings, but though the mention of these campaigns may be fanciful, his war with Jajalladeva II of South Kosala seems to be founded on fact[8]. The Kalachuri king

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1. Epigraphia Indica, Vol. I, p 198
2. Corpus Inscriptionum Indicarum. Vol. IV, pt II, p 188.
3. Journal of Asiatic Society of Bengal (N. S.) 1914, p 199 ff.
4. Corpus Inscriptionum Indicarum, Vol. IV, pt. I, p. 320.
5. *Prabandhachintamani*, p 93.
6. Corpus Inscriptionum Indicarum, Vol. IV, pt. I, pp. 320—21.
7. *Ibid*, pp. 322 and 324.
8. *Ibid*, p. 330.

seems to have continued to hold to the last the valley of Tons, for the Rewa plate of the *Maharanaka* Kirtivarman, the ruler of Karkaredi, mentions him as suzerain with full titles of paramountcy[1]. Towards the close of his reign Jayasimha seems to have been forced to pay homage to the Chandela king Paramardin (*c.* 1165—1203 A. D.). In a fragmentary Mahoba inscription dated 1184 A. D., it is stated that the lord of Tripuri fainted whenever he heard the songs of valour of Paramardin's arms[2]. He had two queens, Kelhanadevi mentioned in his Jabalpur plates, and Gosaladevi known from the Kumbhi plates and Bheraghat inscription. The village of Gosalpur, about 19 miles north by east of Jabalpur, was evidently founded in the name of the latter queen.

He was succeeded by his son Vijayasimha. In the beginning of his reign the ruler of Karkaredi attempted to throw off his yoke. The Dhureti plates show that Vijayasimha lost the northern portion of Baghelkhand in about 1212 A.D.[3]. He seems also to have submitted to the Yadava king Simhana whose empire touched Chhattisgarh and Jabalpur as suggested by the discovery of his coins in this area[4]. In the Pulunja stone Inscription which seems to be dated in 1200 A. D., Simhana is called *Dahalabrit-kutuhala,* "a very curiosity of the heart of the Dahal country"[5]. The expression is, perhaps, tended to signify that when Simhana invaded Dahala the people of the country flocked together out of curiosity to see him.

It is not known as to when Vijayasimha's reign came to an end. The Kumbhi plates mention Ajayasimha as *Maharajakumara* or crown prince. He was plainly Vijayasimha's son, but whether he actually ascended the throne is not known. The Malkapuram inscription carries the Kalachuri rule down to 1240 A. D., after which there are isolated references until the rise of the Muslim power in the thirteenth century.

Thus, having ruled this region with many vicissitudes for about six centuries, the Kalachuris disappear from the stage of history[6].

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1. *Ibid,* p. 343.
2. *Ibid,* p. VII.
3. *Ibid,* pp. 373-374.
4. Journal of Numismatic Society of India, Vol. VIII, p 151.
5. G. Yazdani, The Early History of the Deccan, pt. VII—XI, pp. 549—51.
6. With the decline of the house of Tripuri, the Kalachuris did not entirely fade into oblivion. We hear of Kalachuri Chiefs living in different localities long afterwards. The Hayobans Rajputs of the Balia district in the east of Uttar Pradesh claim descent from the Rajas of Ratanpur in Madhya Pradesh, and probably are an off-shoot of the ancient Haihaya race. *See* C. W. Crooke, Ethnographical Hand-book, p 156, Tribes and Castes of the North West Provinces and Oudh, Vol. II, p. 493.

The manner of their disappearance is not exactly known, but there are reasons to believe that they ultimately suffered from internal weakness and rise of new powers. After the fall of the Kalachuris, the Yadavas of Deogiri made depredations in this territory. Ample evidence exists to show that the Haihaya kingdom was over-run by the emperor Krishna (1246—60 A. D.), who held Tripuri for a while[1]. Later, Ramachandra (1271-1311 A. D.) also defeated very easily the king of this great and extensive Dahal country, who was most possibly the Chandela ruler Hammiravarman. With Tripuri as his base of operations, Ramachandra planned on a bold invasion of the Delhi Sultanate most probably after the death of Balban in A. D. 1286.

Regarding the Chandelas as a political power in this tract, certain facts can be gleaned from inscriptions. A stone inscription dated V. S. 1341 or 1287 A. D, found at Hindoria, 11 miles from Damoh, states that portions of Jabalpur and Damoh districts were governed by Maharajaputra Vaghadeva under the Chandela Bhojavarman (1286—1288 A. D.[2]). The term '*Rajputra*' usually means a prince of the royal family, but Vaghadeva was most probably a prince of a feudal house, and such princes were often employed in high administrative posts[3]. Another stone inscription from Bamhni in the same district, dated V. S. 1364 or 1308 A. D, mentioned the same chief as a feudatory of Hammiravarman (1288- *c*. 1310 A. D) who had in the mean time succeeded Bhojavarman The Patan *Sati* record dated V. S. 1361 or 1304 A. D. furnished the interesting information that Vaghadeva was a Pratihara chief[4]. The discovery of a *Sati* inscription at Salaiya, three miles from Bamhni, dated V. S. 1366 or 1309 A. D., in the reign of Ala-ud-din Khalji (*Alayadin Sultana*) marks the end of Chandela rule in the territories of Damoh and Jabalpur though they probably continued to rule in Kalanjara and Ajayagarh[5]. This is corroborated by literary evidence which indicates that it was about this time that Ala-ud-din sent his army to Deccan after establishing a footing first in Malwa and Bundel-Khand by ousting the local dynasties.

During the 14th century A. D. this region was nominally under the rule of Delhi Sultans who were all the time too busy elsewhere to pay any attention to these out-of-the way regions.

1. Indian Antiquary, Vol. VI, p. 196, Vol. XIV, p. 69.
2. Inscriptions in C. P. and Berar, p. 56.
3. Beni Prasad, The State in Ancient India, p. 405.
4. Epigraphia Indica, Vol. XVI, p. 11.
5. *Ibid*, p. 54.

Following Timur's invasion in A.D. 1398 the last vestiges of the Muslim rule finally disappeared and the local chiefs succeeded in carving out their own tiny principalities, such as Garola, Hariya (Harai), Salwani Dankai, Kathola, Mugda, Mandla, Deohar, Lanji, etc.[1]. Presumably about the same time a certain Yadavaraya, also called Jadurai or Yado Rai, taking advantage of the political confusion, established himself at Garha-Katanga and initiated a line which was destined to play an important role in the politics of Gondwana[2]. Tradition differs regarding the antecendents of this legendary figure[3]. One account represents him as a hero, who, issuing from the Godavari region, destroyed the last of the Kalachuris. Another makes him a Rajput adventurer from Khandesh, who entered the service of an old Gond chieftain, married his daughter, and succeeded him on the throne. By gradual extension Yadavaraya's principality expanded so as to skirt the river Hiran in one direction, and, in another, Gaur. Surbhi Pathak, a Brahman recluse from Tilwaraghat, to whom Yadavaraya owed his throne, was made his chief minister. Several of his descendants served the chiefs of Garha in later years.

Of his successors we know nothing except their names which are recorded in a genealogy prepared by order of the Gond ruler Hirde Shah and now found in a Sanskrit table on the walls of the palace at Ramnagar[4]. One of them, Mandansingh, built Madan Mahal in Jabalpur. Others, Gorakh Das and Arjun Singh, appear from *Akbaranama* to be the grandfather and father, respectively, of Sangram Shah. Local tradition avers that Gorakh Das built Gorakhpur near Jabalpur and another of the same name near Bargi[5].

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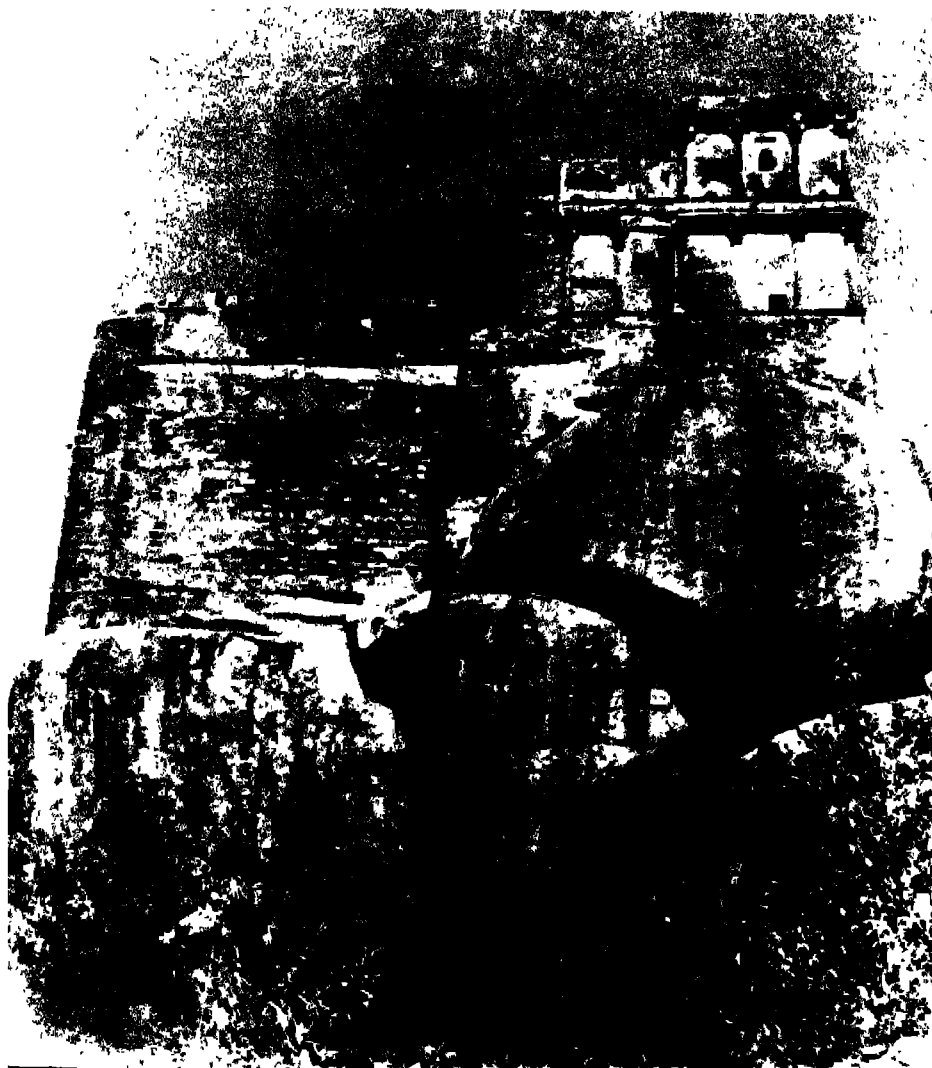
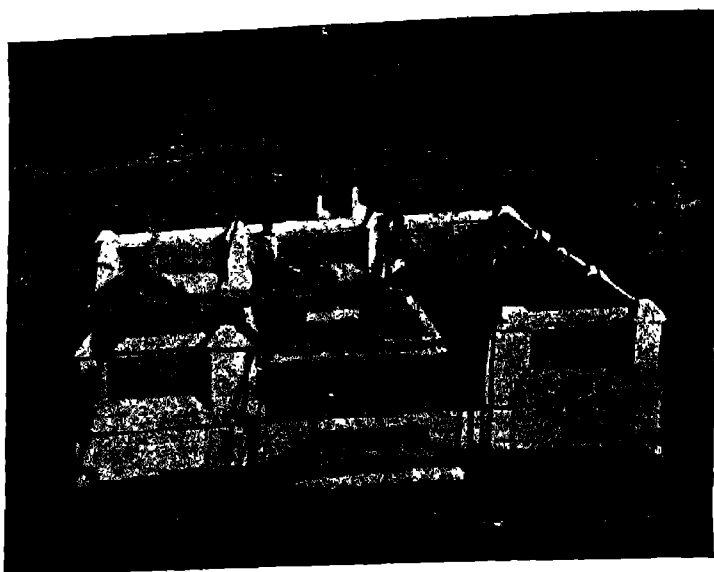
1 Akbarnama, Tr by Beveridge, Vol II p 421

2 The kingdom of Garha Katanga derived its name from the principal town Garha and a village Katanga, existing even now two and four miles west of Jabalpur town. It was known as Garha-Katanga down to the 17 century and afterwards as Garha-Mandla

3. For details see Sleeman's 'History of the Garha-Mandla Rajas' in Journal of Asiatic Society of Bengal, Vol VI, pt. II, pp 621--48; E Chatterton, The Story of Gondwana, pp. 15-17; *Mudhya Pradesh Ka Itihas* pp 85-86; and Russell, Tribes and Castes of Central Provinces, Vol IV, p. 451.

4 For the inscription see Journal of American Oriential Research Society, Vol. VII, pp. 1--24; Asiatic Researches, Vol XV, p 436 ff; and Cunningham, Archaeological Survey Report, Vol XVII, p. 46 ff Vol. VII, p 107. Hiralal believes that "at least half the names given in the inscription are fictitious", Inscriptions in C. P. and Berar, p 67; and Mandla *Mayukha*, p 18 ff. Ramnagar lies 10 miles north-east of Mandla on the bank of the Narmada.

5. C. U. Wills, The Raj Gond Maharajas of Satpura Hills, p. 18.

Madan Mahal

Samadhi of Rani Durgawati

Durgawati's Gajshala, Jabalpur

It is to Sangram Shah, otherwise called Aman Das, that northern Gondwana owes its real greatness and fame. He came to the *gaddi* in about A. D. 1480. Till then the sway of the Gond rulers was con fined to the region around Jabalpur and Mandla. A man of large ambitions and high courage, Sangram Shah extended his dominions over fifty-two garhas or districts[1] comprising Sagar, Damoh, and possibly Bhopal, the Narmada valley, and Mandla and Seoni on the Satpura. A *sati* record found at Tharraka, 15 miles from Damoh shows that his authority extended at least fifty miles north of his capital at Garha[2].

His gold coins further suggest his independent status and a certain administrative system. They bear on the obverse a crested lion with the legend *Putari Suvasti Shri Sangram Shahi Samavat* 1570, and on the reverse we have the name of the king in Telugu and Nagari characters. Three irregular silver coins bearing the same device were found at Tamia in Chhindwara district in the heart of the Satpura plateau[3]

But Sangram Shah was not without a blemish in his early life. He is described as an evil-minded and crafty person constantly engaged in undesirable pursuits. His father, Arjun Das, had put him in confinement for some time and then let him out upon certain conditions. Owing to these disagreements with his father, Sangram Shah fled to the neighbouring state of Rewa Birsingh Dev (1500-1540 A. D.) treated him kindly, and when the former went to attend upon Sultan Sikandar Lodi he left him behind with his son Virbhan (Paribhan) who was then a minor. In the meantime the Gond Chief, Arjun Das, formally disinherited him. Sangram Shah thereupon returned to Garha, and with his mother's connivance, contrived to kill his father and seize the principality Two of his father's faithful adherents informed Birsingh about it who at once returned and over-ran Garha, forcing the usurper to take shelter in the hills. Assailed by unforseen circumstances, Sangram Shah met Birsingh with a small retinue and the latter forgave him after much reproach and restored his country[4].

Sangram Shah maintained cordial relations with the contemporary Muslim rulers From *Tarikh-i-Salatin-i-Aghana*, we gather that,

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1. In Cambridge History of India, Vol III the number has been given as fifty-four.
2. Inscriptions in C. P. and Berar p 61, Hiralal, *Damoh Deepak*, p 81.
3. Annual Report of the Archaeological Survey of India, 1913-14, pp 253--55.
4. Akbarnama, Vol II, pp 325-26

when in 1517 A.D. *Shahzada* Jalal defied his brother Sultan Ibrahim Lodi, he went to Garha-Katanga from where he was captured and sent to Agra to gain good-will of the emperor.[1] He helped Bahadur Shah of Gujarat in the conquest of Raisen, and the latter is said to have conferred on him the title of Sangram Shah[2]. Another notable event of his reign was the marriage of his crown prince, Dalpat Shah, with Durgavati, a princess of remarkable beauty and, as events proved, of even greater character. She was the daughter of Raja Salivahan of Rath and Mahoba, a scion of the celebrated Chandela dynasty which was one of the great powers five hundred years earlier. The popular tradition represents it as a 'romantic wooing', but the sober history shows that her impoverished father was obliged to swallow his pride and give his daughter in marriage to the Gond prince who, though inferior in social status, was a wealthy prince of a flourishing dominion.

Sangram Shah died in 1541 A.D. He is remembered for a picturesque lake near Garha which bears his name. Nearby he built a temple, called Bajna *matha*, dedicated to Bhairon, the god of Fear. Desiring to defend his new possessions, he also built the fortress of Chauragarh which from "the brow of the range of hills that form its southern boundary" still overlooks the valley of Narmada near the town of Gadarwara and the source of the Sukur river.

His son and successor, Dalpat, had an uneventful reign. On his death in 1548 A. D., his son Bir Narayan being about three or five years of age, the dowager queen Durgavati assumed the reins of government. For next sixteen years (1548-1564 A.D.) she governed the country with the help of two ministers, Adhar Kayastha and Man Brahman, and such was the level of prosperity that people paid their rent in gold *mohurs* and elephants[3]. Trade was in a flourishing condition throughout this period. A treasure trove discovered in 1908 between Garha and Madan Mahal and consisting of coins of Muhammedan kings of Delhi, Kashmir, Gujarat, Malwa, the Bahmani kingdom and Jaunpur, ranging from A. D. 1311 to A. D. 1553, is a good testimony to the constant inland trade and commerce throughout the length and breadth of the country. Like her husband's predecessors, she extended her territory and accomplished the political unification of Gondwana by her bravery

1 History of India as told by its own Historians, Vol. V, p. 19.
2 Akbarnama, Vol. II, pp. 325-26.
3 Ain-i-Akbari, Vol. II, p. 207.

generosity and tact[1]. Out of 23,000 villages in her kingdom, 12,000 were under the direct management of her government and the remaining in the hands of the vassals. She had a large and well-equipped army consisting of 20,000 cavalry and 1,000 war-elephants, besides a good number of foot-soldiers. She distinguished herself in warfare, and fought with unvarying success against the Sultan of Malwa. It appears from *Tarikh-i-Firishta* that Baz Bahadur launched a campaign against Durgavati sometime between 1555 and 1560 A.D. He invaded Gondwana, but in the contest his uncle Fateh Khan was killed, and he retired to Sarangpur near Dewas for re-inforcements. The hostilities were soon resumed when the Sultan attacked the fortress of Garha. The Gonds strongly fortified the pass leading to their capital with infantry, and a fierce attack on Baz Bahadur in an ambush, from which he narrowly escaped forced him to beat a hasty retreat. The Persian annalist credits Durgavati with complete victory over the Sultan, who escaped "singly to Sarangpur, but his army was completely surrounded and made prisoners most of whom were put to death."[2] On another occasion the Miana Afghans of Sironj invited Ibrahim Sur to be their ruler in opposition to Baz Bahadur. The Rani also espoused their cause and marched from Garha to join them. When the astute Sultan heard of this, he sent persons to the Rani with a view to inducing her to forseek her design, and thus averted a clash.[3]

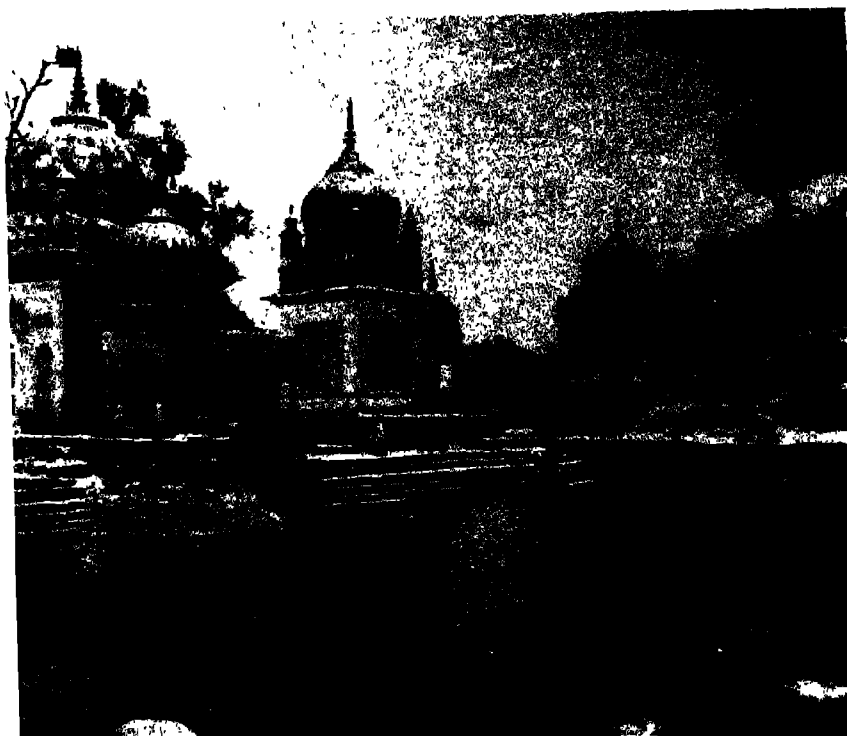
Durgavati combined feminine beauty and grace with manly courage, bravery and activity[4] Abul Fazl pays a glowing tribute to her, but adds that her only fault, was not to submit to Akbar and acknowledge his suzerainty. "She was not lacking (literally neglecting)", writes he, "in any of the essentials of bravery and of effort and did great things by dint of her far seeing abilities. She had great contests with Baz Bahadur and with the Mianas, and was always victorious. She was a good shot with gun and arrow and continuously went ahunting and such was her custom that whenever she heard that

1. The territory of Gondwana, also called Garha-Katanga, was bounded in the east by Jharkhand, in the north by the state of Bhatha, on the south by the Deccan plateau and in the west by the principality of Raisen in Malwa. From east to west it was 300 miles long and from north to south 160 miles broad. It had many populous cities and towns, and several strong forts. It comprised 70000 villages and its principal inhabitants were mostly Gonds who lived in small hamlets.
2. Tarikh-i-Firishta, Vol. IV, p. 277.
3. History of India as told by its own Historians, Vol. V, pp. 214—45.
4. Badauni speaks of her beauty, charm, and grace besides bravery (Muntakhab-ul Tawarikh, Vol. II, p. 66). Nizamuddin praises her beauty and charm (Tabaqat-i-Akbari, Vol. II, p. 170). Ferishta says she was richly endowed with good looks, talent and character (Tarikh i-Firishta Vol. I, p. 254).

a tiger had made his appearance she did not drink water till she had shot him. There are stories current in Hindustan of her exploits in the assemblies of peace and in the fields of battle."[1] She carried out many useful public works in different parts of the kingdom and deservedly won the hearts of her people. She built a great reservoir which lies close to Jabalpur, and is called Ranital or queen's tank after her. One of her maid servants built another that lies, close by and is called Cherital or maid-servant's pond[2]. Her minister, Adhar, constructed a large tank about three miles from Jabalpur on the Mirzapur road called Adhartal which gives its name to the village in which it is situated.

A literary tradition avers that Acharya Bitthalnath was given a rousing reception at Garha where he established a seat of the *Pushtimarga* cult sometime in 1562 A. D.[3] The Rani is also reputed to be a liberal patron of learning. But soon this fame invited troubles for her She fell a victim to the Mughal aggression, wholly unprovoked and devoid of all justification other than the lust for conquest and plunder. Fired by the tales of her wealth and hope of rich territorial gains, Asaf Khan, the governor of Kara-Manikpur, decided to attack her dominions. He began by opening friendly relations with the people, encouraging trade between Gondwana and the territory under him, and appointing clever spies to find out the Rani's military strength[4]. Next he raided the border villages and finally embarked on its conquest. When the imperial army, consisting of 10 000 picked cavalry and a large number of infantry under Asaf Khan, assisted by Muhib Ali Khan. Muhammad Murad Khan, Wazir Khan and several other officers and Jagirdars of the neighbouring regions with their several contingents, penetrated into the interior of Gondwana and arrived near Damoh

1. Akbarnama Vol. II, p. 211.
2. Tradition says that the maid-servant requested her mistress to allow the people employed on the *Ranital* to take out of the small pond one load every evening before they closed their day's labour, and Cherital was entirely built in this manner
3. *Bhavasindhu* quoted in Hariharnath, *Varta Sahitya*, pp. 552—554
4. The following account is based on Akbarnama, Vol. II, pp. 208-211; Tabakat-i-Akbari, Vol II, pp. 170—71, and Muntakhav-ut-Tawarikh, Vol. II, pp. 66-67.

Rani-Tal, Jabalpur

Dev-Tal with a group of temples, Jabalpur

sometime about the middle of 1564, Durgavati was taken aback[1]. She was not prepared as her troops had dispersed, some on duty in the country-side and others on leave to their homes, and she had not more than 500 of them at her capital. Even then, as she had never before shrunk from a contest, she made a gallant defence to oppose the invaders. Adhar, the chief minister, advised her against a precipitate action, especially as the enemies were far superior in numbers and equipment. This enraged the Rani, and she held him responsible for the inadequate preparations.

"How could she, who had for years governed the country, think of flight" said she. "It was better to die with glory than to live with ignominy". If Akbar himself had come, she would have thought of negotiations or peace. It was derogatory for her to stoop to negotiation with a mere governor like Asaf Khan. She resolved that "it was altogether best that she should die bravely". So saying she marched four stages towards the invaders with a view, it seems, to dodging them. Asaf Khan who was moving rapidly, halted at Damoh when he heard that the Rani had started towards that town. Meanwhile, she had collected 2,000 troops, and although the officers urged upon her the necessity of entrenching in a strong place and postponing the action for some time so as to allow more troops to join, she brushed aside the advice and took a plunge against enormous odds. Proceeding through the dense forest she reached the west of the town of Garha, and from there, moving in a northerly direction through another forest, she arrived at the village of Narhi which lay to the east of Garha, surrounded by lofty mountain peaks with the river Gaur on one side and the mighty Narmada on the other. She wisely selected this strategic position for a trial of strength with the adversary. Fortified by nature, Narhi was "a place very difficult for ingress or agress". Although Asaf Khan deputed spies, they could not find out the whereabouts of the Gonds and, therefore, he marched on to Garha, bringing the territory in between Damoh and Garha under his control. When at last he heard that the Rani was encamped at Narhi he left an army in occupation of Garha and proceeded towards Narhi. In view of Asaf Khan's movements, the Rani, whose troops had by now risen to 5,000, called a Council of her principal officers and urged them to fight as it was not possible to remain for long hidden in the ravines and forests. She allowed those who differed from her to go wherever they liked. Her strong words had the desired effect and they all decided on war. Next day she learnt that the Mughal troops under Nazr Muhammad and Huq-

1. Local tradition says that Asaf Khan's army consisted of "6000 cavalry and 12000 well diciplined infantry with a train of artillery" Journal of Asiatic Society of Bengal, Vol. VI, pp. 627—28.

Muhammad had captured the head of the ravines that led to Narhi and that Arjun Das Bais who was *Faujdar* of her elephant stud had bravely lost his life in defence of the pass. This act of heroism put the Rani on her mettle. She donned her armour and helmet and mounting an elephant ordered her troops to proceed slowly to allow the enemy to enter the pass and then to fall on them from all sides and destroy them. Her anticipations proved to be true. Her tiny force was victorious, and in the encounter 300 Mughals were slain and the remaining were pursued hotly by the valiant Gonds. At the end of the day, she called a Council of War and proposed a night attack on Mughals who were reported to be lurking in the neighbourhood, lest they should fortify the pass with artillery. Her military officers, however, would not agree. So returning to her camp she consoled those who had lost their relatives and in the evening again urged her commanders, "not one of whom could equal her in courage", for a night attack, but again had to yield to the majority who were opposed to this course of action. But the Rani proved to be right, and in the morning Asaf Khan fortified the pass with artillery. Durgavati, mounting her best elephant Sarman[1], led her men to battle which raged fiercely from morning till after three in the evening. "After the armies had encountered the work passed from arrows and muskets to daggers and swords". Bir Narayan, her son, who was now 21 years old, displayed great heroism and thrice repulsed the invaders, but in the third attack at about 3 p m. he was badly wounded and the Rani removed him from the field. The withdrawal of the prince so unnerved her small army that it was almost immediately over-powered. "But there was no weakening of the Rani's resolution and she continued to wage hot war alongside her own gallant followers". Unfortunately, however, two arrows struck her one after another, the first in the right temple between the eye and the ear and other in the neck She pulled out both of them with her own hands, but the point of the first arrow remained in the wound, which made her swoon. When she regained consciousness, and found the battle lost, she asked Adhar Baghela, the elephant driver, to kill her with his sharp dagger so that she might not fall alive into the hands of the enemy. But the man declined to obey, and proposed to take the elephant swiftly to a place of safety. Choosing death rather than dishonour she stabbed herself into the heart, "so that her end was as noble and devoted as her life had been useful."[2] Rani Durga-

1. The name given in *Bhavasindhu* is Gurdar, *Varta Sahitya*, p. 552.
2. Ferishta and Abul Fazl say that the Rani killed herself, but Nizamud-din and Badauni are of the opinion that she was killed by her driver at her orders. Cf. Ramnagar *Inscription*, "Being vexed with countless hostile arrows clove her own head in an instant, with a sword in her hand as she sat on *her elephant*, where-upon she penetrated the solar sphere, as did her son", Journal of American Oriental Society, Vol. VII, p. 8.

vati was cremated in a narrow defile some twelve miles from Jabalpur. Thus perished the chivalrous Rani who, as Sleeman remarks, lives most in the pages of history and the grateful recollections of the people. With her fell a large number of her devoted followers, prominent among them were Kunwar Kalyan Baghela, Chakraman, Khan Jahan and Mahasukh, fighting desparately to their last breath.

It took Asaf Khan two months to settle that part of Gondwana which he had occupied after his victory at Narhi and to repair losses his army had suffered. He then proceeded to Chauragarh, 20 miles south-west of Narsimhapur, which was the treasure city of the kingdom The young Raja, Bir Narayan, died bravely and protected the honour of his household by the awful act of *Jauhar* so often recorded in the Rajput history. Asaf Khan got a rich booty including a thousand elephants of which only two hundred were sent to the court. Evidently he thougt of setting up as an independent potentate, and held Garha for some years as an independent principality. Akbar "winked at his treachery" and deferred the settlement of accounts to a more convenient season. Asaf Khan's attempt at independence lasted for a few years only, and he finally returned to his allegiance, and was restored to his governorship of Kara-Manikpur.

The triumph of Mughal arms marked an epoch in the history of this region. Sleeman, writing in 1825, observed that the local tradition spoke of an intercourse with Delhi and a subjection, real or nominal, to its sovereigns from Akbar downwards, but that no mention was ever made of any such connection in the period before Akbar's reign. He added that the oldest rupees found in the earth along the line of Nerbudda were of the reign of Akbar. In the administrative organization of Akbar, Garha is shown as a *mahal* of the *sarkar* of the same name in the *subah of Malwa*. The *sarkar* of Garha contained 57 mahals and paid a revenue of 10.077,080 *dams* and contributed 5,495 horsemen and 2,54,500 infantry to the Imperial army.[1] Speaking of Garha, Abul Fazl says: "Garha is separate state, abounding with forests in which are numerous wild elephants. The cultivators pay the revenue in mohurs and elephants. Its produce is sufficient to supply fully both Gujarat and the Deccan."[2] The statistics of Aurangzeb's reign and the *Chahar Gulshan* put the total number of villages in the *sarkar* of Garha at 759[3]

1. Ain-i-Akbari, Vol. II, pp. 210-11.
2. *Ibid*, p. 207. The text reads *muhr o pil*, but Irfan Habib takes it that *pil* is a mistake for *pul*, *i.e.*, Copper pieces, The Agrarian system of Mughal India, p. 238 and note.
3. Irfan Habib, The Agrarian system of Mughal India, p. 20

For the next 25 years, Garha-Katanga was placed in charge of a succession of Mughal officers whose military force controlled the country. The first officer mentioned in this connection was Mahdi Qasim Khan who was appointed to the charge of Garha in 1566 A.D. in order to drive out Asaf Khan. But he failed to manage this territory on account of its area and bad condition. On his departure to Mecca, Kakar Ali Khan, Shah Quli Khan, Naranji and others were appointed to the province. By their efforts they set the country right and received princely favours.[1] Later, Rai Surjan Hada of Bundi served as Jagirdar of Garha-Katanga till his transfer to Chunar in 1575 A.D.[2] Thereafter Sadiq Khan was sent for the protection (*hirasat*) of this country.[3] Later, we read that one Baqi Khan died while as jagirdar of Garha-Katanga in 1585 A.D., and was succeeded by Mirza Aziz who served for a year as Jagirdar, both of Garha and Raisen[4] The next Mughal officer is Shaham Khan who was appointed as *tuyuldar* of Garha in 1587 A.D., but soon afterwards transferred to Delhi.[5] An imperial officer in charge of Garha, called *marzban* or border-land, is also referred to in the account of the *subah* of Berar contained in *Ain-i-Akbari*[6] In Akbar's later years and during the reign of Jahangir, however, there are hardly any references to Garha-Katanga.

Before we proceed further, let us pause here to consider the fate of the surviving members of the House of Garha. Though Garha was included in the list of Akbar's possessions, its chiefs were under a nominal subjection and their history runs in a channel of its own, unaffected by the imperial interference mainly due to the geographical barriers. Finding the management of this hilly tract irksome, Akbar restored Chandra Shah, an uncle of ill-starred Bir Narayan and younger brother of Dalpat Shah, to a part of his former kingdom. In return for this gesture the Gond chief had to cede that portion of his territory which formed the former state of Bhopal.[7] Chandra Shah's successor, Madhukar Shah, came to the throne with the fatal stain of his elder brother's blood on his hands That he felt the crime deeply is shown by the fact that some years later his remorse drove him to take his own life by voluntarily burning himself in a

1. Akarnama, Vol II, pp 405-6; Massir-u-Umara, Tr by Brijratna Das, Vol. II, p. 117; Vol. III, p. 22.
2. Ain-i-Akbari, Vol. I, p. 450.
3. *Ibid*, p. 382.
4. Akbarnama, Vol. III, pp. 629, 655, 701; Massir-ul-Umara, Vol. IV, p. 147.
5. Ain-i-Akbari, Vol. I, pp 450-51. A *tuyul* meant a land estate conferred for a specified time in lieu of salary.
6. The Raj-Gond Maharajas of the Satpura Hills, pp. 73-74.
7. The territory ceded to Akbar included the districts of Rahatgarh, Gonour, Bari, Chaukigarh, Makarai, Karu Bagh, Kurwai, Raisen, Bhaurasa and Bhopal.

dry hollow *pipal* tree. Of Madhukar Shah, it is recorded that he was the first prince of his dynasty to visit the Mughal court for the purpose of paying homage to the emperor.[1] His son, Prem Narain, waited on Jahangir and made an offering of seven elephants, male and female, in 1617 A.D. where-upon this "zamindar of the province of Garha promoted to a *mansab* of 1,000 personal and 500 horses and an order was given that a jagir should be provided out of his native country" and finally thereafter he "obtained leave to go to his Jagir."[2] Prem Narain was a ruler of considerable note, as testified by the title mentioned in a *Sati* inscription discovered at Amoda in Jabalpur district.[3]

The news of Madhukar Shah's self immolation soon reached the ear of Prem Narain who was with the emperor at Delhi. Leaving his eldest son Hirde Shah to represent him at the Imperial court, the Gond chief hastened back to Garha. The common story is that, while passing near Orchha, Prem Narain failed to return the ceremonial visit of the Raja, Bir Singh Deo. This discourtesy angered the Bundela chief so much, that on his death-bed he made his son, Jhujhar Singh, swear to avenge this insult by the invasion and conquest of Garha. Consequently, in 1634 A.D., Jhujhar Singh attacked the Gond Raja, Prem Narain, whose fort of Chauragarh was seized after his treacherous assassination. The Gond tradition has, however, a different story. It says that Prem Narain was over-powered by numerous Bundelas, and the former in his despair dedicated his head to the family goddess. She is said to have placed her magic sword in the hands of the headless warrior, and his foes in dismay fled before him.

But Bundela's triumph was short-lived. When the news of this tragic event reached the Mughal court Hirde Shah hastened back to his country and avenged himself by attacking and killing the aggressor. He received considerable help from the Muslim *Mansabdar* of the ten ceded districts who was given the district of Opudgarh containing three hundred villages. To Hirde Shah goes the credit of many welfare activities. The Ramnagar inscription praises him for the presence of proper roads on the sides of which were planted shady groves[4]. Of these, the Lakheri groves at Jabalpur where the cantonment now stands was the largest containing more than one lakh

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1. Journal of Asiatic Society of Bengal, Vol. VI, pt. II, p. 630.
2. Tuzuk-i-Jehangiri, Tr. by Rogers and Beveridge, Vol. I, pp. 379, 388 and 411.
3. Cunningham, Archaeological Survey Report, Vol. IV, p. 39; *Jabalpur Jyoti*, pp. 116 and 150, and Inscriptions in C. P. and Berar, p. 41.
4. Journal of American Oriental Society, Vol. VII, p. 16.

mango trees. A large reservoir called Ganga-Sagar, near Garha, is also ascribed to him. According to a tradition the foundation of the city of Ramnagar with its famous fortress is ascribed to him. Hirde Shah died in 1678, A.D., and was followed by Chhattar Shah who ruled for seven years. On the death of Chhattar Shah his son Kesari Shah (1685—88 A.D.) succeed him, but soon after Hari Singh usurped the *gaddi* by putting his nephew to death. From *Maasiri-Alamgiri* we learn that in the 26th year of Aurangzeb's reign, *i.e.*, 1684 A D., "Hari Singh,, brother of Chhattar Singh, Zamindar of Garha, presented himself at the royal court and was honoured with a robe and raised to the same rank as others of his status", while in the 28th year, *i.e.* 1686 A.D., the same authority records that he was "honoured by the grant of a *khilat*."[1].

But the people resented this act of usurpation and, rising in revolt, proclaimed Narind Shah, son of Kesari Shah, then about seven years of age, as their ruler, and collecting a strong force killed Hari Singh and drove away his son Pahar Singh from the field. Narind Shah's reign (1688-1732 A. D.) was marred by interminable domestic disputes which led to cession of territory to the Mughals, to the Bundelas and to the *raja* of Deo garh. Narind Shah probably ruled for about thirty-seven years, and on his death in 1732 A.D., was succeeded by his son Maharaj Shah who held the *gaddi* from 1732 to 1742 A.D. Towards the close of his reign, Balaji Peshwa personally came down to reduce the territory of Garha-Mandla. The Gond ruler put up a feeble defence, and was killed in an action. Out of his two sons, Sheoraj Shah and Nizam Shah, the elder one was put upon the throne on condition that he should pay four lakhs as the annual *chauth* or quarter of his public revenue as tribute.[2]

The remaining pages of Garha history form an uninteresting chapter. Sheoraj Shah ruled for seven years (1742--1749 A.D.). His son, Durjan Shah, fell after six months, and Nizam Shah established himself for next twenty-seven years. Nizam Shah devoted himself to the improvement of the country, and cultivation is said to have been extended throughout. The population too increased greatly during his long reign. Trouble arose once more on his death. The Maratha *Mokasdar* of Sagar, representing the Peshwa, supported an illegitimate claimant, and Nizam Shah's nephew, Narhar Shah, who secured

1 Maasir-i-Alamgiri, (Bibliotheca Indica) 1867, pp. 227 and 250

2 Journal of Asiatic Society of Bengal, Vol. VI, pp 635-36

the succession, was deposed by the Sagar ruler after having ruled for three years to make room for a certain Sumer Shah. Sumer Shah, nine months later, was shut up in Gaurjhamar fort and Narhar Shah was restored. But the latter now turned against the Maratha detachment under Moraji, left to control him, with the result that, in 1780 this area passed under the Maratha rulers of Sagar.

The subsequent events concerning the Gond prince may be narrated here for the sake of completeness. Narhar Shah died a prisoner in the fort of Khurai. Sumer Shah was kept imprisoned in the fort of Jatashankar during the whole period of the Maratha ascendancy and was released by Benaik Rao who gave him a village in *jagir* for his maintenance. He attempted in 1804 A. D. to recover the authority through the assistance of Nagojee, an officer of Holkar, and after being repulsed in advance towards Jabalpur, he planned an attack elsewhere, but was intercepted and put to death by Sindhia's Officer at Deori, at the instance of the Raja of Nagpur. Shankar Shah, the only son of Sumer Shah, since then led a wandering life, remaining generally in the camp of Amir Khan Pindari on whose bounty he subsisted for a long time. He accompanied the Pindaris on their invasion of this region in 1809, and is said to have received an assurance of being restored to the territory of his ancestors at Jabalpur.[1]

An early Europeon traveller, who passed through Jabalpur in 1790 A. D. has left an account of Garha: "It is an ancient place and there is a mint in which an inferior rupee current throughout Bundelkhand, called *Ballashahy*, is coined. A strong party of horse is always stationed there. The road was good between Ghurra (Garha) and Jubbilghur (Jabalpur), which we passed through, and encamped on the bank of tank on the skirts of the town."[2]

Colebrooke who passed through the old Seoni and Jabalpur districts in May 1801 praises the legacy bequeathed by the Gonds to the early Maratha administration. He observes: "Jabalpur (in truth a large and populous place), becoming the abode of the Subahdar of the province, and the station of a large body of cavalry, has drawn numerous inhabitants from the neighbouring town of Garah, yet without greatly depopulating it; for the distance is so small that the towns are rather divisions of one city than avowed rivals to each other.".

1. Selections from the Nagpur Residency Records, Vol. IV, pp 134-35.
2. Early European Travellers in the Nagpur Territories, p 79.

"The thriving conditions of the province, indicated by the appearance of its capital, and confirmed by that of the districts which we subsequently traversed, demand from me a tribute of praise to the ancient princes of the country. Without the benefit of navigation, (for the Narmada is not here navigable), and without much inland commerce, but under the fostering hand of a race of Gond princes, a numerous people tilled a fertile country, and still preserve in the neatness of their houses, in the number and magnificence of their temples, their ponds and other public works, in the size of their towns, and in the frequency of their plantations, the undoubted signs of enviable prosperity. The whole merit may be safely ascribed to the former government for the praise of good administration is rarely merited by Maharatta chieftains; and it is sufficient applause to say, that the chief of Sagur in twenty years, and the rajah of Berar, in four, have not much impaired the prosperity which they found."[1].

There is very little information as to what happened at Jabalpur during the Maratha regime. They fixed their headquarters there, and built a small fort on the side which is known as Lordgunj after the visit of William Bentinck in 1832. It was undoubtedly a weak government, and during these years many Lodhi and Gond families rose into prominence. These *taluqdars* were assigned certain territories encircling the boundaries of the District so as to form a security cordon and, in order to win their favour, little or no revenue was charged from them Charles Fraser who concluded the second quinquennial settlement of 1825 in 1827, testifies to "the superior mildness and moderation of the Saugor administration to that of the Nagpur one."[2].

In March 1797, Jabalpur region came under the rule of the Bhonslas of Nagpur which lasted till the advent of British. This period (from 1797 to 1817), unfortunately for Jabalpur, coincided with the worst period of Bhonsla administration The Government at this time had become arbitrary in its measures and corrupt in all its departments. All revenue reports of these times teem with accounts of the cruel but often ingenious processes by which the Maratha collectors slowly bled the people. Of the deplorable condition to which this territory was then reduced, we have a vivid picture from the pen of Charles Grant who later officiated as the Chief Commissioner of Central Provinces. "The taxes

1 *Ibid*, p 215
2 Jubbulpore Settlement Report, 1869, para 16

levied in different places varied with the idiosyncrasies of the Government, or of the individual tax-collector; but among them it may be noticed that people were mulcted for having houses to live in; or if they had no houses, for their temporary sheds or huts; if they ate grain, their food was taxed at every stage in its progress through the country; if they ate meat, they paid duty in it through their butchers. When they married, they paid for beating drums or putting up marquees. If they rejoiced at the set Hindu festivals, they paid again at the *Holi*, for instance, on the red powder which they threw at each other, at the *Pola*, on the ornaments which they tied to the horns of their cattle. Drinkers were mulcted by an excise, and smokers by a tobacco duty. Weavers, oil-pressers, fishermen, and such low-caste industrials had as a matter of course to bear a special burden. No houses or slaves or cattle could be sold, no cloth could be stamped—no money could be changed,—even prayers for rain could not be offered without paying on each operation its special and peculiar tax. In short a poor man could not shelter himself, or clothe himself, or earn his bread, or eat it, or marry, or rejoice, or even ask his gods for better weather without contributing separately on each individual act to the necessities of the State."[1].

The miseries of the people were further aggravated by the ravages of Pindaries who, from their standing camps in the Narmada valley, poured forth periodically carrying fire and sword. Amir Khan who led these marauding parties wanted to carve out a principality for himself from the Bhonsla territory. But the British Government was firmly opposed to any revival of the Muslim power in this part[2]. In October 1809. Amir Khan ignoring the British remonstrances crossed the Narmada and appeared before Jabalpur on 12th at the head of 12,000 horsemen and 7 guns. Another Pindari chief, Shahamat Khan, encamped at Tilwaraghat, with about 2,000 Pindaries and 7 guns[3]. There is nothing in local history more moving than the picture of utter desolation which these human locusts left in their tract.

At Jabalpur, Amir Khan let loose his followers and they with their accustomed energy in such an enterprise, spread over the country in detached parties, "appropriating all they could seize, insulting the temples of the Hindoos, defacing the images, and committing outrages and excesses such as will not readily be forgotten, or the

1. Charles Grant, Gazetteer of the Central Provinces, 1870, p. Ci.
2. Selections from Nagpur Residency Records, Vol. II, pp. 94—101.
3. *Ibid*, p. 102.

horror excited by them be burried in oblivion."[1] Meanwhile the Bhonsla forces under Sadiq Ali Khan and Amrita Rao Bakshi, after occasional skirmishes, moved against them on 13th, and probably on the same day Amir Khan recrossed the Hirree river and reached Katangi. There he remained till 15th or 16th and then on one of these dates proceeded to Jubera ghat, together with his infantry and greater part of his guns including those which he had taken at Jabalpur.[2]

But inspite of all these inherent defects and these occasional tragedies of Pindari inroads this tract owes to the Gond and Maratha rule much greater than is commonly supposed. In 1829. Colonel Sleeman caused an estimate to be made of the public works of ornament and utility which in a single district of Jabalpur were due to the munificence of private persons anterior to the British rule. "The population of the district amounted to about half a million, and there were, in various parts of town and country, created by individuals for the public good, and with no view to personal return or profits, 2,286 tanks, 209 large wells with flights of steps extending from the top down to the water in its lowest stages, 1,560 wells lined with masonry but without stairs, 389 Hindu temples and 92 mosques. The estimated cost of these works amounted to 866,640 In addition to these, two-thirds of the towns and villages were embedded in groves of mango and tamarind trees mixed with the banyan and pipal all planted at the cost of private citizens at an estimated cost of 12,000"[3].

Meanwhile, the British relations with the Peshwa at Poona had been gradually ripening to a rupture. Ever since Appa Sahib came in full possession of the kingdom of Nagpur he had been contemplating the removal of the lengthening shadows of British influence and the restoration of the Maratha empire to its 'pristine splendour and glory.' In the valley of Narmada there was a general state of hostility towards the British, from the middle of November 1817 particularly round Jabalpur, where Major Richards commanded three companies of infantry and a detachment of Rohilla horse. The signs of the coming trouble first appeared at Jabalpur. With the increasing concentration of hostile elements in Jabalpur the British commander was so much frightened that he left the station

1. Jubbulpore settlement Report 1869, para 15.
2. Selections from Nagpur Residency Records Vol. II, pp. 112-15.
3. Quoted in The History of Freedom Momement in Madhya Pradesh, p. 28.

with a part of his baggage early in December, and fell back to the Narmada by the road towards Gadarwara in Narsimhapur district.[1]

In December 1817, Brigadier-General Hardyman who was still in the Rewa territory, occupying the positions which he had assumed in the previous months for the destruction of the Pindaris, was, directed by Lord Hastings to move towards the Nagpur kingdom. He, accordingly, started his march on the 7th with a force comprising a regiment each of cavalry and European foot, and four guns, while the other battalion of sepoys being so far in the rear was directed to halt at Bilhari till a favourable opportunity should offer for its joining. On his arrival near Jabalpur on the 19th Hardyman found the Bhonsla forces drawn up and strongly posted to oppose his possession of that place. They were in numbers about three thousand, of whom about one thousand were horse, and stationed on the left. Their right was on a rocky eminence, where they had likewise four brass guns. The Brigadier-General placed his guns in the centre with three companies of the 17th foot on each side of them, and two companies in their rear. He sent two squadrons, under Major O' Brien, round the left of the enemy to cut them off from the river, masked his guns by another squadron, and held a squadron in rear of his left as a reserve. On arriving near enough to the enemy's centre, the guns being unmasked, opened with shrapnel shells, and were immediately answered. A fire was kept up for about a quarter of an hour, when the enemy's infantry wavered; on which the reserve squadron was ordered to charge the battery. This service was gallantly performed, and the artillarymen sabred and pistoled at their guns. The advance squadron then attempted to charge the infantry, who had descended into the plain; but they reascended the eminence, and obliged it to return under a heavy fire. On this, one wing of the 17th foot was brought up by the Brigadier-General to storm the height; and effected the same by a strenuous exertion, which ended in a severe loss to the enemy. Those who fled into the plain, down the opposite side, were mostly intercepted by the advance squadron, which made a detour round their right as the 17th ascended This affairs, which appears to have been creditably conducted and executed, occupied about two hours. Should any doubt arise respecting the propriety of attacking the enemy's battery on strong ground, with cavalry, the question will probably be decided by a reference to the small loss of British troops, amounting only to twelve men and twenty horses; among the former were three

1. Valentine Blacker, Memoir of the Operations of the British Army in India during the Mahratta War of 1817-1819, p. 119.

European and one Native officer. In the course of that night and the following morning, the enemy abandoned the town and *gurree* of Jubbulpore, leaving behind them nine pieces of ordnance and various military stores."[1]

The British occupation of this tract resulted in the collapse of the local administration. Ramji Tantia, the Subah (Governor) of Garha-Mandla Province, fled. Naturally, therefore, a state of utter confusion prevailed for a while.[2] Immediately they formed a Provisional Government at Jabalpur on 7 February 1818, of which Lieutenant Colonel Nicoll was the President. There were three other members, namely, Major Manley, Captain Despard and Lieutenant Harvey.[3] This was essentially a military Commission established for the collection of revenues and the maintenance of order in the District.[4] With a view to restoring order and allay alarm they appointed Raghunath Rao Inglia, as the acting Subah. He was considered to be eminently suited for this post, being the "most respectable man from the point of rank and family at Jubbulpore and the one whom the natives looked up to with the greatest confidence."[5] The services of all other civil employees were confirmed, and they were called upon to perform their usual duties and to render a daily account of revenue receipts.[6] Although there were no public demonstrations, some recalcitrant elements still refused to bow down to the new masters.[7] The proceedings of the Provisional Government of Lieutenant Colonel Nicoll contain interesting information both of political and social affairs.[8] They describe how it was called upon by Raghunath Rao to decide among other questions whether "widow should still be sold for the benefit of the state", whether "one-fourth of the proceeds of all house-sales should continue to be paid into the treasury", and whether "persons selling their daughters should still be taxed one-fourth of the price realised." At the meeting of the same provisional Government there is an entry ordering the release of a woman, named Pursia, who had been sold by auction a few days before for seventeen

1. *Ibid*, p 120
2. Selections from Nagpur Residency Records, Vol. IV, p 10
3. *Ibid*, p. 11.
4. Foreign Political Consultation, dated 15th May, 1818, Nos 33-35
5. Selections from Nagpur Residency Records, Vol IV, p. 40
6. *Ibid*, p. 11
7. *Ibid*, p. 26.
8. *Ibid*, pp 23—39.

rupees. The price of commodities, custom duties levied on them pay of officials, farming taxes, and much other interesting information can also be gleaned from them. On 1 February 1818, Colonel Nicoll handed over the charge to Major O' Brien who was appointed as the Chairman of the Government with Lieutenant Pope and Major Manley as members.[1] They were now assigned specific duties for the smooth running of the administration. Major O' Brien undertook the police, Major Manley the revenue department, and Lieutenant Pope the correspondence, representations, etc. It was also decided to meet twice a week, *i.e*, on Thursday and Friday, and each member was expected to report to the Government about the progress of his department.[2]

When the provisional Government was abolished on 14th April 1818, the northern districts including Jabalpur were, for a time, governed by a Commissioner who was subject to the Resident at Nagpur. In 1820 this area, designated as the Saugor and Nerbudda Territories, was placed under the administration of an Agent to the Governor-General with his headquarters at Jabalpur. Cockrell, styled as the Principal Assistant Commissioner, was posted in the District. He was assisted by an Assistant Commissioner in the criminal and revenue matters and a *Sadar Amin's* court in the civil judicial work. Below the *Sadar Amin's* court in the District there were pargana courts presided over by Tahsildars. On the constitution of the North Western Provinces in 1835, the Saugor and Nerbudda Territories were included in them, and an officer designated as the Agent to the Lieutenant-Governor was posted at Jabalpur to look after its administration.

The early administration of this tract was not successful. British administrators repeated here too the mistake made in Madras and elsewhere. They assessed the lands too high, demanded an impossible revenue, impoverished the people and retarded the progress of the region When the mistake was detected later it was condemned in strongest terms.

Meanwhile the first eruption caused by the political social and economic unsettlement that had taken place among the chieftains and princelets of Saugor and Nerbudda Territories, known as the Bundela rising, occurred in 1842. Its focus was the northern part of Sagar where two landowners, Madhukar Shah and Jawahir Singh Bundela, went into open rebellion when served with decrees

1. *Ibid*, p. 41.
2. Foreign Political Consultation, dated 5th May 1818, Nos. 33—35.

from the civil courts The swell of the wave of rebellion was felt in Jabalpur District early in April 1842. The Junior Assistant at this town writes; "The consternation to be naturally expected as the result of this successful inroad (by the insurgents) is spreading throughout these territories on account of eruption reaching the ears of the people, and the alarm at Jabalpur has been so great as to render it unnecessary to postpone the departure to Sagar until I can restore confidence." The leading figure of Jabalpur revolt was Raja Hirde Shah of Heerapur *taluq*, then included in Jabalpur District (now in Narsimhapur district). He had been in correspondence for some time with other Thakurs, for a joint rising against the British. Captain Brown had intercepted certain letters which indicated that the outbreak was to take place on the *Dussehra* festival. Even when invited by Captain Brown on this festive occasion, Raja Hirde Shah and many of his associates did not go to him.[1] Another rebel chief was Thakur Hindupat of Katra-Belkhera, who mounted a gun, collected arms and ammunitions, and started raising armed followers at the very commencement of the revolt. He was, however, forced into submission, and he surrendered himself before the Principal Assistant Commissioner at Jabalpur on 19th September 1842.[2] Later Colonel Ely, who was purs·ing the Raja of Heerapur towards Patan was able to report that 'with the help of the Raja of Shahgarh, they had been able to capture Raja Hirde Shah of Heerapur and his whole family on the 22nd December 1842'. This was the signal for other rebels to surrender, and by April 1843 the disturbance was practically suppressed.

Let us now turn to the consequences of the Bundela rebellion. It did much damage to cultivation and led to agricultural depression. In 1845, it was found necessary to give general reduction of ten per cent of the revenue throughout the District[3]. In the administrative sphere these convulsions produced far-reaching repurcussions. Assessing the situation the Governor-General later admitted that the chief cause of the outbreak was the administration of Government in a spirit of "harshness and repressiveness towards the pepole"[4]. Consequently, Lord Ellenborough inaugurated the newly-gained peace by making a clean sweep of the British official serving

1. History of Freedom Movement in Madhya Pradesh, p. 35.

2. Jubbulpore Division, Bundle Correspondence (Political), Case File No 1 and 56 of 1842

3. Jubbulpore District Gazetteer, 1910, p. 65

4. Jubbulpore Division Bundle Correspondence (Political), Case File No. 21 of 1841-43, pp. 1024—26

in the territories, and by sending Colonel Sleeman who succeeded in pacifying the chiefs and making the people contented. When, after a rule of three years, he was promoted to be Resident at Lucknow, he handed over the region to his successor, Bushley, in perfect order. Bushley's administration for five or six years was characterised by ability and good judgment, but at the close of that period the Saugor and Nerbudda Territories were joined to the North-West Provinces, Major Erskine receiving the appointment of Commissioner of Jabalpur. With their transfer to the North-West Provinces, the Saugor and Nerbudda Territories came under the Sadar Board which made certain changes, relating chiefly to the sub-division of properties, rousing much dissatisfaction that led to many agrarian outrages.

Such was the state of this tract in 1855 The smouldering discontent, thus kindled by various causes, had not subsided when the Great Revolt came up in 1857 to inflame it Signs of the approaching storm had begun to appear at least six months before it actually burst. Erskine describes how as early as January small *chapatties* were sent round in a mysterious way from village to village in most of the districts[1] They were the symbol of a message, telling the people that they were to be prepared for a sudden and dangerous event that would come upon them Like the fiery cross sent round among the highlands of Scotland these *chapatties* were meant for unsettling men's minds, preparing them for the unforeseen making them impressionable and easy to receive the ideas the organisers wished to spread. Early in May stories were current that *ghee, atta* and sugar had been adulterated by the Government order with pig's and cow's blood and bone-dust[2]. Soon the news of events in Delhi-Meerut area reached Jabalpur, and great excitement prevailed on 19th and 22nd of May[3]. Then followed the tidings of events in Jhansi on 8th June, and with it came the report that Raja Mardan Singh of Banpur had risen in rebellion[4].

For some weeks nothing worth mentioning occurred in Jabalpur District. But on the 16th June, while Adjutant Miller was ins-

1 W. C. Erskine, Narrative of Events attending the outbreak of Disturbances and the Restoration of Authority in the Saugor and Nerbudda Territorries in 1857-58, para 5

2. *Ibid*, para 8.

3. *Ibid*, paras 11—13

4. *Ibid*, paras 17—18.

pecting the guards of his regiment, one of the sepoys charged at him with his musket causing him only a scratch. The man was quickly overpowered and confined in the guard-room. He was found to be insane, and sent off under escort to Banaras. It transpired, however, that at Banaras, owing to the war of reprisals started by Colonel Neill, the man was pronounced to be not mad and he was hanged[1]. Ever since this isolated incident, the European community lived in great alarm. The men assumed usual airs or defiance, treated their officers with patronising familiarity and declared that they would rebel if European troops came. On 7 July came the news of the mutiny at Sagar, and two days later three companies of the 52nd, stationed at Jabalpur, took their muskets out of the bell of arms with menacing gestures, but they were pacified[2]. Rumours became current that some of the Thakurs and chieftains were about to rise to join the sepoys against the British. They expected that the resurgent forces that had reached Damoh from Sagar would proceed to Jabalpur. Fearing an attack Major Erskine fortified the Agency House on 18 July, and those women and children who had not been sent away to Seoni and Narsimhapur were brought into it. He describes how that night forty-five adults of whom ten were ladies and fifteen children sat down to dinner in the hall, while the sergeants and other civilians stood guard all round the house. "Doubtless that night was one of no small danger to the Europeans of Jabalpur, for a section of the determined men might have shot us all from the large hall door as we sat at dinner"[3]. But the expected shots did not come and all through the night and the next day, they made themselves busy fortifying their positions.

The rebellion had its echoes in other parts on the borders of Damoh and Panna State.[4] One Nawab Singh with about 500 Bundelas occupied the Bilhari fort on 14 July, and even meditated and attack on Murwara[5]. An expedition against them was sent but the rebels fled towards Panna leaving behind some looted property. Another leader, Mangarh Raja, collected his clans-men with hostile purposes near Jubera and Katangi.[6] The rebels began to act with increased boldness. There prevailed a state of anarchy, and the

1. *Ibid*, paras 27—28.
2. *Ibid*, para 79.
3. *Ibid*, para. 82
4. Jubbulpore Division, Bundle Correspondence, Case File No. 16 of 1857
5. *Ibid*.
6. *Ibid*.

Deputy Commissioner at Jabalpur suggested on 17 July that Martial Law should be proclaimed in the tract north of Hiran river over greater part of which large bodies of armed men were collecting and daily increasing in numbers[1]

The news that succour was reaching Jabalpur from Kamtee had a restraining influence and Major Erskine successfully employed the 52nd in repressing disturbance in the District. The Kamtee Movable Column consisting of Madras troops and a battery of Artillery marched into Jabalpur on the 2nd of August. After halting there for a few days, the larger portion of it was sent into the neighbouring districts to restore order. A section of European Officers, however, remonstrated against this deployment of troops, as they thought, unsafe to leave Europeans at the mercy of rebels who, according to an estimate, numbered one hundred-and-seventy-nine.[2]

Meanwhile, trouble was brewing in Jabalpur. The arrival of the Mobile Column with European gunners was resented by some of the sepoys. Early in September there were evidences that some of the sepoys and Thakurs planned to take action. They found a leader in Shanker Shah, the last of the Gond Raja who, though short of territory and power, had still the prestige of an ancient dynasty. Shanker Shah was then a British pensioner having under him three Jagir villages and was living at Purwa, now a suburb of Jabalpur. The plan was to collect a sufficient force with the aid of other Thakurs and Zamindars and march against the cantonment on the first day of *Moharrum*. Before the appointed day, however, information was leaked to the Deputy Commissioner, who sent a *Chaprasi* in the guise of a *fakir* to find out more of the alleged conspiracy. The Raja and his son were completely deceived by the disguised emissary and, without hesitation, disclosed their intentions, as well as the means they had resolved to employ for carrying them into effect. Acting upon the report, a party of twenty, *sowars* and a strong body of police, accompanied by Lieutenant

1. *Ibid.*
2. Rice Holmes, History of Indian mutiny, p. 49. The names of some Rebels of Jabalpur were Malupal Singh of Bulgaon, Bhup Singh, Kuman Singh, Sheodan Malguzar, Murat Singh Rambux of Murwara, Gujraj Singh of Garaghat, Lachman Singh of Narainpur, Himmut Singh and Bhao Singh of Nimakhera, etc. For details of their activities *see*, Further Papers relating to the Mutinies in the East Indies presented to both Houses of Parliament by Her Majesty, Vol VII, p. 281-2; Vol. VIII, p. 287; Vol. IX, pp. 271-73, 578, 583, Jubbulpore Division, Bundle Correspondence (Judicial), Case File Nos. 20, 34 and 63 of 1858; and Foreign Secret Consultation No. 355, dated 30th April, 1858.

Clerk, proceeded towards the Raja's house on 14th September 1857. When they were about a mile from the place, the Deputy Commissioner galloped forward with some *sowars* and surrounded the village until the police arrived and arrested the Raja, his son Raghunath Shah and some thirteen persons in the house, and confined them in a prison. On searching the Raja's house several documents were found, particularly a piece of paper on which the Raja had written a prayer, invoking his deity to aid him to upset the British Government and establish his own. The paper was found in a silken bag in which he kept his fan, near the bed from which he rose as Liuetenant Clerk and his party entered the house. The prayer was written on a scrap of paper torn from a Government Proclamation after the exents at Meerut and the Remainder of the proclamation was afterwards found in the house. A similar prayer in the handwriting of his son Raghunath Shah was also discovered. The poem has been freely translated into English by Erskine and runs as follows :—"Shut the mouth of slanderers, bite and eat up backbiters, trample down the sinners, you, *Shatrusanharaka* (destroyer of enemies) kill the British, exterminate them, *Mata Chandee* (a name of the goddess).

Let not the enemy escape, nor the wives and childhen of such,
Oh *San'haraka* (a name of goddess),
Show favour to Shanker,
Support your slave,
Listen to the cry of religion,
Mata Kalika (a name of the goddess),
Eat up the unclean,
Make no delay,
Now devour them,
And that quickly,

Ghormat Kalika (another name of the Goddess)."

The day after the arrest, the sepoys made an effort to rescue the prisoners. Shots were heard in the lines at night and a nearby house was set on fire. The authorities, however, took precautionary measures to render their rescue impossible and tried them for plotting against the Company *raj*. The trying Commission, comprising the Deputy Commissioner and two British Officers, did not find any difficulty in pronouncing these prisoners guilty of high treason. "The father and son were tied to the mouth of a cannon and blown away on 18th September. The old man with his snowwhite hair maintained a haughty bearing to the last. The entire act was made

public and people were called to witness the scene. Half-burnt remains were collected on behalf of the Rani, while European officers looked on with a smile of gratified revenge on their lips."[1]

That Shanker Shah devoutly wished and prayed for the extermination of the British from India is quite evident from the following eye-witness account:—

"I have just come back from seeing the rebel rajah and his son blown away from guns. It was an awful sight but they rightly deserved a far worse fate. Fancy—it has been found that we were all to be roasted alive when caught. He prayed, as he was being lashed to the gun, that his surviving children might be spared to burn us. We went down to where the two guns were drawn up, with detachment of infantry and cavalry to prevent surprise, the cavalry rushing about to keep the people back from the front of the guns. Soon afterwards the prisoners arrived, looking very apathetic and non-chalant; their fetters were knocked off on the ground. I was quite close to them, as we officers were inside a circle, close to the guns, into which the crowd was not allowed to come. They were then bound to the mouths of the cannon. You know I have a very soft heart, and would most likely have fainted or get sick at home, if I had seen the same before these massacres; but I can assure you, that although I felt the awful solemnity of two souls going, with a prayer for murder upon their lips, before their God, yet I went up afterwards, with almost gratified feelings, to look at their faces, still thinking of Cawnpore, Delhi, Meerut, Jhansie, Bareilly, Fyzabad. The old man's face was quiet and severe (he never had moved a muscle the whole time before), as was also the young one's (a man of forty). Their legs and arms fell close to the cannon mouths, they being tied; the head and upper part of the body being blown about fifty yards in front. Quite untouched their faces were, and quite, quiet."[2].

To allay the excitement which, it was thought, these executions might create in the minds of the rank and file, Colonel Jameison and others went almost immediately to the lines and explained to the men that the prisoners had merely paid the penalty for treason. They judged from the manner of the men that they had removed

1. Martin, The Indian Empire (1858-61), Vol. II, p. 491, A Darbar was held at Jabalpur in 1860 by Lord Canning to meet Holkar and Sindhia and other Chiefs of Central India. Canning felt that it was necessary to reassure the princes and people of India, and to consolidate the Empire in their good wishes and loyalty—R. C. Dutt, India in the Victorian Age, p. 241.

2. Charles Ball, The History of the Indian Mutiny, Vol. II, pp. 145-46.

all apprehensions from their minds. At nine O'clock that night, however, the entire 52nd regiment marched quietly out of the station, taking with them only their arms and ammunitions by a circuitous route outside the city towards Patan where a detachment under Liuetenant Mac-Gregor was stationed. They were joined by this detachment, taking Mac-Gregor with them. From Patan the sepoys had written a letter to Colonel Jameison in which they announced their intention of marching to Delhi, and offered to release Mac-Gregor in exchange for ten sepoys left behind in Jabalpur. Major Erskine offered 8,000 rupees for the release of the British officer. But the rebels spurned this offer and kept their prisoner till they were attacked and then shot him. They, then proceeded to Katangi where there was another detachment which they took with them, and went on to Sleemanabad, 30 miles on the Mirzapur road. There was stationed a third detachment under Lieutenents Barton and Cockburn. When these troops at Sleemanabad decided to rise, they expressed their regret at parting with their officers and did not molest them. Some of them shook their officers by the hand and the Pay Havildar handed over one of the officers the balance of his pay and marched off quietly towards Nagod. The two officers safely reached Jabalpur while the men obtained a carriage and sent the officers' baggage to Jabalpur after them. This singular treatment of British officers provides a sharp contrast to the fate that befell the captured insurgents at the hands of the British.

Immediately after the uprising of the 52nd infantry in Jabalpur on the night of 18th September orders were given to the Madras Column to return to Jabalpur. The Column which happened to be at Damoh started at once on 21st September 1857. On reaching the mouth of the gorge leading to Katangi, the main column found that the 52nd had taken a very strong position, both flanks covered by thick jungles. They engaged the insurgents and opened fire. A bayonet charge gave them complete victory and men of the 52nd dispersed with much loss of life. On reaching Katangi the victors were joined by an advance party led by Jenkins and Watson, believed to have been killed previously in their attempts to secure the passage over river Hiran to Katangi.[1] The pursuit was continued beyond that place. The rebels suffered severely. A hundred and twenty five dead were actually counted on the field and it is certain that many more were wounded. On the side of the victors one man was killed and fifty were wounded. The column then returned to Jabalpur.

1 Narrative of Events attending the outbreak of Disturbances and the Restoration of Authority in the Saugor and Nerbudda Territories in 1857-58, Appendix L, pp. 62-64.

During this time Jabalpur continued to be in ferment. The remnant of the 52nd, numbering some five hundred and thirty men, even after its defeat at Katangi, continued to ravage the country. In Sihora and Sleemanabad, the Thakurs plundered in all directions, and Debi Singh, Jagat, Singh and Bahadur Singh assembled their forces in Burgi pargana to the south of the Narmada[1]. These three, according to official reports, were in league with Shanker Shah in his meditated attack on the Europeans[2]. The army they brought to the field at this time was further swelled by the forces received from the Shahgarh Raja, Indra Singh and from many other *Malguzars* and the Ramnagar chiefs. Their main object was to attack Damoh. Extensive preparations were made with the support from Arjun Dawa, Mahraj Singh Dawa, Ramprasad Puhulwan, officers of the Shahgarh Raja, as also from the Lodhies of the District[3] Ganeshgunj was occupied by the Gond rebels. Reports from Patan spoke of a strong party of about 1,000 rebels who later attacked the town and burnt public buildings[4].

One of the heroic figures in this movement in Jabalpur was the young Thakur Surju Prasad of Bijairaghogarh. His family traced its lineage to the princely house of Jaipur, and Bijairaghogarh once formed part of the estate of Maihar. On the death of Thakur Durjan Singh of Maihar in 1826 the property was divided between his two sons, Bishnu Singh taking Maihar and Prayagdas the estate of Bsjairaghogarh. By as *sanad* dated 29th February 1828, the British Government recognised Thakur Prayagdas as the chief of Bijairaghogarh. For about nineteen years he conducted the affairs of the estate with great success and introduced many useful reforms. According to the Settlement Report of Jabalpur District of 1869 his estate was considered during his time a flourishing place, having an efficient and benevolent administration. Prayagdas died in 1845 and was succeeded by his son, young Surju Prasad, who was then only a boy of five years. The authorities, therefore, took over charge of the minor chief and brought the state under management of the Court of Wards. Towards the end of October 1857, when the events that had happened in Jabalpur were agitating the public mind, young Thakur Surju Prasad rose in open revolt. The Tahsildar, Sabit Ali, was killed; the *dak* horses were captured; and a large body of armed men covered strategic Jabalpur—Mirza-

1. Jubbulpore Division, Bundle Correspondence, Case File No. 23 of 1857 (Political).
2. Further papers relating to the Mutinies in East India presented to both Houses of Parliament by Command of Her Majesty, Vol. I
3. *Ibid*, pp. 276-77.
4. Jubbulpore Division, Bundle Correspondence, Case File No. 23 of 1857, (Political).

pur road, so that neither *dak* nor travellers could pass along that road.[1] A *daffadar* belonging to the Hydrabad contingent thus described the conditions—"We found barriers of bamboos at either ends of the villages with about 10 or 15 sepoys at each barrier in the service of the Raja of Bijairaghogarh. There were *moonshies* to read Persian and Hindi and also English writing. They searched us and took away all the letters and papers upon us, also all our money but did not take any clothing from us. The Raja's agent is named "Bukhtawar Barellia." At Khylwara we found about 5 or 6 more Bijairaghogarh sepoys who again searched us for papers but did not take any of our clothes. Between Khylwara and Moorwara itself there is a very strong post of about 50 or 60 matchlockmen. Here they again search all passers."[2]

Surju Prasad had with him a following of about 3,000 men and was further aided by levies supplied by the Raja of Shahgarh and other malcontents like Mangurh Raja, Mahipal Singh and Narainpur Thakurs. Other rebels connected with Bijairaghogarh episode were Lalla Chattur Singh, Dewan Sarda Prasad, Ganeshjoo, Budoo Singh, Mukund Singh[3] Dewan Dulgunjun Singh, Byroo Bhistee, Sivalal Baree *Killedar* and Ramprasad Thanedar of Khylwara. It was not before January 1853, when the Rewa troops were ordered to march towards Maihar, that the British could move their troops against Bijairaghogarh and capture it along with thirteen guns and a mortar. Immediately the fort was dismantled[4]. The estate of Bijairaghogarh was placed under the charge of Colonel Osborne, Political Agent for Bundelkhand, along with the districts of Maihar Uchhera and Sohawal[5]. On 20th January 1858 the *Majhli Thakurani* of the late chief Prayagdas surrendered with ten armed followers and was later sent to Nogod under escort[6]. Surju Prasad managed to escape from the holocaust with a band of staunch followers and wandered about in the guise of a *faqir*[7]. But in 1864, he was captured and taken to Jabalpur where he was confined for a long time. He was sentenced to transportation for life and forfeiture of all his property, including the promissory notes amounting to

1. Foreign Secret Consultation, dated 27th November, 1857, Nos 156, 157 and 160.
2. Jubbulpore Division, Bundle Correspondence, Case File No. 33 of 1857 (Political).
3. Foreign Secret Consultation, dated 26th February 1858, No. 74.
4. *Ibid*, dated 26th March, 1858, Nos 186—189.
5. Foreign Political Consultation, dated 2nd July, 1958, Nos. 105—107
6. *Ibid*, dated 11th March, 1859, No. 215.
7. Foreign Secret Consultation, dated 30th April, 1858, Nos. 173-174.

Rs. 1,17,400[1]. But true to the traditions of his race, he preferred death to dishonour and ended his life with a dagger[2].

The Aftermath of the Uprising.

Of the results that flowed from the collapse of this popular Revolt, we may review only those that affected life in this District. The Great Uprising was put down with a savage repression. The vestiges of movement, wherever they were found, were crushed ruthlessely by wreaking vengeance upon the people indiscriminately. The Deputy Commissioner of Jabalpur prepared lists of families from every village which had been thought to be guilty of rebellion. The leading zamindars of the territories in Jabalpur who had organised resistance against the British were the worst sufferers from the confiscations. For instance, all the property of Shanker Shah and his son Raghunath Shah was confiscated, and even when the days of cruel reprisals were over, the British authorities did not spare the helpless and innocent widow of Raghunath Shah whom they decided to be "worthy of no consideration." Similarly, the principality of Bijairaghogarh was confiscated, and the ruling family banished. Others like the Raja Mehpal Singh of Bhutagaon Kunoja, and local *taluqdars* like Chundra Hans Gond, Thakur Ram Bux of Murwara, Issoredass of Khirenee, Lachman Singh of Narainpur, and hundreds of even less known land-holders, scattered all over the District, were also deprived of their property on the slightest suspicions. There were many who had forsaken their estates and gone into hiding to escape from the British persecutions. A prize was put on their heads and all their possessions were confiscated. The contemporary records preserve a list of persons of this class giving the nature of their offences and the rewards awarded for their apprehensions[3].

Growth of Freedom Movement

In the years that followed the Great Revolt, while the people sullenly nursed their resentment and while the British officers and civilians were striding the land with the arrogance and brutality of mediaeval conquerors, India was being gradually transformed. The seething discontent, groping for an outlet, expressed itself first in the movements for religious and social reforms. Of these there were several, mainly the proselytising organisations such as Brahmo Samaj and Arya Samaj, which hoped to check the Chris-

1. Foreign Political Consultation, dated 12th March, 1958, Nos. 97—100.
2. Further Papers relating to the Mutinies in the East Indies presented to both Houses of Parliament by Command of Her Majesty, Volume IX, p. 878.
3. Jubbulpore Division, Bundle Correspondence (Judicial), Case File Nos 20, 34 and 63 of 1858.

tian missionary activities by a dynamic Hinduism. To the rather militant Hindu sentiments that prevailed in this District, the teachings of Swami Dayanand and of the Arya Samaj founded by him had a distinct effect. He visited Jabalpur in the early seventies and stayed with the father of the late M. K. Golwalkar. But the Samaj was formally established only in 1895. While these revivalist movements were opening out to the minds of the people a vision of the greatness of their heritage, a number of social and voluntary organisations sprang up in the District. They included societies, like the Vidyaprasarak Sabha, Hitkarini Mahajan Sabha Balbodhani Sabha, Anjuman Islamia and Vidyavardhini Sabha All these institutions contributed to a certain participation in the resurgence prevailing in the country, and led to the awakening of the people in the District. It would be of interest to add here that, the First National Conference held in Calcutta between December 28 and 30, 1883, was attend by delegates from Jabalpur District as well. Meanwhile, the political articulation of the resurgent India finally launched the Indian National Congress in 1885, and from then onwards the history of Jabalpur coincided with the histroy of the Province as a whole. The first Provincial Conference in old Madhya Pradesh met on 22 April, 1905 in Nagpur with Dada Saheb G S. Khaparde, as President But though the political discontent was a spur to action, restraint and moderation were the key-notes of the speeches. When the Congress met in Jabalpur in the following year, under the presidentship of Sir Gangadhar Rao Chitnavis, there was much excitement on the question of *Swadeshi* The President welcomed the forthcoming visit of the Prince of Wales (later George V) and the Princess to India and proceeded to refer disparagingly to the activities of the progressive wing of the National Movement. As regards *Swadeshi* he asked "who was opposed to it", but added that it should not be used as a political weapon. On this issue there was much heated discussion in the conference. Khaparde wanted the delegates to accept the resolution and, although the moderates disapproved of it, the resolution was passed[1].

The year 1907 saw an ideological split in the Congress ranks, and the political opinion in Madhya Pradesh came to be sharply divided as in other provinces, the difference being that the overwhelming support in this State was with Bal Gangadhar Tilak and the extremists Dada Saheb Khaparde and Dr B, S Munje visited Jabalpur and Katni in May, and established branches of the nationalist wing of the Congress.

1. Prayag Dutt Shukul, *Kranti-ke-Charan*, pp 78-79.

The years that followed were the years of rapidly growing tension. A series of calculated acts of high-handed despotism, resulting from Gurzon's ill-advised policy, led inevitably to the cult of of *Swadeshi* and the boycott of foreign goods which spread in the District. At the same time the terrorist movement of Bengal spread to Madhya Pradesh where Khaparde and others had already sown the seeds of aggressive nationalism. There is evidence that a branch of the political body, Brahmacharis, was established for a short time in Jabalpur where a certain number of Bengalees had settled[1]. In 1909 some terrorists, connected with the Dacca Anushilan Samiti, were apprehended at Gwarighat near Jabalpur city. Later, in February, 1915, the well-known revolutionary, Rashbihari Ghosh, sent one Nalini Mohan Mukerji to prepare the troops at Jabalpur for a joint rising planned by the Ghadar party. Towards the end of the year Vinayaka Rao Kapile, a noted terrorist, came here and organised a group of seven persons. There also occurred outrages attributed to the Anushilan Samiti, and acting on some clues the police carried out searches in Jabalpur and arrested Shailendra Ghosh and others, and kept them in detention for various periods Shailendra Ghosh was the son of a pleader of Seoni and a teacher. From 16th December to 31st December, 1916, he was closely interrogated in the Cantonment area. He was then transferred to the local jail where inhuman torture was perpetrated on him. He was, however, released on 31st January, 1917, but his movements were restricted as he was asked to remain at the village Jabera in Damoh district, where he composed three dramatic pieces. With Shailendra Ghosh were arrested Chidambaram Pilley, Shiva Prasad Verma, a pleader. Prafulla Chakravarty, a clerk in a private firm, and Devi Charan Singh who suffered from tuberculosis and died soon after his release in 1918 On Devi Charan Singh's death some patriotic verses composed by him were found with his belongings[2].

Some important organisations founded, during 1910—1914, were the Seva Samiti and Sharda Pustakalaya which, though primarily devoted to the social and cultural pursuits[3], exercised considerable political influence in this region.

It was against this background that the political workers of Madhya Pradesh decided to close their ranks and form the "Central Provinces and Berar Provincial Association" in November 1915. Jabalpur was represented in its Working Committee by Vishnu

1. History of Freedom Movement in Madhya Pradesh, p. 260.
2. *Kranti-ke-Charan*, pp. 148—154.
3. Seth Govind Das, *Atma Nireekshan*, Vol. I, pp. 221, 235-36.

Dutt Shukul. Among the members of its Standing Committee Jabalpur was represented by Seth Vallabha Das, Shiv Prasad Verma, Shyam Sunder Bhargava, Beohar Raghuvir Singh and Govind Lal Purohit.[1] When the Home Rule League, started by Annie Besant, took up the cause of India's freedom, a branch of the League was established at Jabalpur in 1915.[2] Home Rule agitation gained momentum after the visit of Tilak to Jabalpur towards the close of 1916 while he was on his way to Lucknow Congress. On this occasion he addressed a largely attended public meeting at Alab-khan-ki-Talaiya which, in commemoration of his visit, was later called the Tilak-bhumi. He revisited Jabalpur on 8th October, 1917, was taken out in a procession, and a mass meeting was held at Bhaldarpura with Pandit Vishnu Dutt Shukul as President. Even though students were ordered to avoid the meeting, they were present there in thousands. Two English professors, Roland and Hunter, purposely went there to note down the names of students attending the meeting, and the next day 12 students were expelled from their institutions. As a sequel, the students resorted to a strike. Later, the Provincial Congress and the Graduates' Association jointly took counsel and an amicable settlement was reached with the authorities.[3] Once again, in June, 1920, Tilak came to Jabalpur and addressed two mammoth meetings on 3rd and 4th. When the news of Tilak's tragic death in August 1920 reached Jabalpur, the students of the Model High School abstained from classes. This annoyed the Government so much that the students were greatly harassed, and a teacher of the local Training College was dismissed[4].

After the momentous session of Nagpur Congress in December, 1920, the Central Provinces were grouped under three Committees, *viz*., the Berar Central Provinces, later called Vidarbha Provincial Committee, the Hindi C P., later called Mahakoshal Provincial Committee, and the Marathi C P. which later become the Nagpur Provincial Committee. This realignment of the Province on the linguistic principle had a significant effect on the growth of the Movement in Jabalpur which was now the centre of one of the Provincial Committees, and from this radiating nucleus of Congress work the Movement spread out into the interior. Soon after the close of the session Mahatma Gandhi came to Jabalpur in the course of a whirlwind tour, and addressed a huge meeting on 20 March 1921

1. *Kranti-ke-Charan*, p. 129
2. *Ibid*, p 136.
3. *Ibid*, p. 144 and note
4. *Shukul Abhinandan Grantha*, p. 146.

when he was presented with a sum of Rs. 20,000 for the Swaraj Fund. Gandhiji expressed complete satisfaction at the progress of the Movement in the District[1]. Another result of his visit was that the masses now rallied to the Congress programme of non-violent non co-operation, which consisted mainly of defiance of the law, boycott of foreign cloth and peaceful picketing of shops dealing in foreign liquor. Students left the government institutions, and joined the nationalised Hitkarini High School and Tilak Rashtriya Vidyalaya, Katni. This new move was amply reflected in the Hindi C. P. Provincial Conference held at Jabalpur in May, 1921. Dr. Raghavendra Rao presided over the conference which was attended by a record number of delegates and visitors. The address of the Chairman of the Reception Committee, Seth Govind Das, and the presidential address set the note for the entire proceedings. They exposed the hollowness of the reforms and the opportunism of those who had entered the Councils. "We hold the view", Dr. Rao said, "that the present system of Government is normally indefensible, politically insensible and is intended to emasculate our manhood and to complete the process of our economic subjection". He defended the policy of non-co-operation on the ground that it was based on the traditions and morality of our race. "Our habits of thought, our past history and material character point in the direction of winning our enemies by allowing ourselves to suffer rather than inflict violence on our opponents." Earlier the delegates were welcomed by Seth Govind Das. Since at the time of the Conference he had been laid up with high fever, the address was read out on his behalf by Nathuram Modi In his address Seth Govind Das gave a detailed account of the progress of the non-co-operation movement in Hindi Central Provinces area, and said that in every item, such as, boycott of Councils, of services and of colleges and law courts, the people had achieved conspicuous results. Speaking with particular refi rernce to the contributions of students in the National Movement, he said "The more effective propagation of the Congress ideals has been made by batches of young students going round the lanes and streets of the town singing national songs. The result of this is that these political songs are on the lips of the common masses and the people have been awakened to new national spirit"[2] The Congress set up a Committee for Mahakoshal with Dr. Rao as President and prepared a programme for intensive political propaganda throughout the area. Able leaders sprang up at Jabalpur to carry forward the work They included stalwarts, like

1. *Atma Nireekshan*, Vol. II, pp. 27-28.
2. History of Freedom Movement in Madhya Pradesh, pp. 308-09; also *Atma Nireekshan*, Vol. II, pp. 29—32.

Seth Govind Das, Dwarka Prasad Mishra, Shyam Sunder Bhargava, Nathuram Modi and Gyanchandra Verma, who marshalled the public support in areas where political awareness had not been conspicuous. Others like Makhan Lal Chaturvedi and Madhavrao Sapre started a Hindi Weekly, *Karamveer*, and in their hands it became a powerful medium for stimulating the National Movement[1].

But the Jabalpur District had its real political test only in March, 1923, when there was a dramatic tussle between the Congress and the local authorities at Jabalpur on the issue of the National Flag[2]. It actually began when the Congress members hoisted the tricolour flag on the municipal buildings on 8th March, 1923. The European Deputy Commissioner in high dudgeon ordered it to be pulled down and the over-zealous police not only did that but trampled it which immediately touched off an indignant agitation. In defiance of the Government order the District Congress Committee started a *Satyagraha*, and Pandit Sunderlal, Subhadra Kumari Chauhan, Nathuram Modi and some other volunteers took out a procession with the Flag. The procession was stopped by the police and all the leaders were arrested. Upon this all members of the municipality resigned in a body as a protest. Pandit Sunderlal was tried and sentenced to six months imprisonment. A miniature flag on his person was forcibly seized against which as a protest he went on a fast for seventy-two hours while awaiting trial. Later, when the centre of this agitation shifted to Nagpur on 1st May, 1923, a large batch was sent from Jabalpur under Subhadra Kumari Chauhan and her husband Thakur Laxman Singh. For some time, considering the callous treatment meted out to *Satyagrahis*, she was not allowed to offer herself for arrest. But ultimately she was permitted to brave the peril. and when she was arrested C. Rajagopalachari, then in Nagpur, commented at a public meeting, "I hope you realise that a sister of ours is today under arrest. Why has she allowed herself to be taken in the custody of strangers and policemen, which no Hindu lady can contemplate with equanimity? If you consider about it, does it not mark a wonderful progress in our march to freedom? This brave act of Subhadra Devi will be heard and felt in every home in India[3]."

We may recall here briefly the main political currents between 1923 and 1930. The year 1924 was a particularly bad year for communal

1. *Atma Nireekshan* Vol. I, p. 231.
2. *Ibid*, Vol II, pp 86, 90, 92
3. Quoted in History of Freedom Movement in Madhya Pradesh, p. 326.

troubles. On the Bakr-Id some clashes occurred in Jabalpur and a few other places in the State. Soon after, a more violent incident happened on *Dussehra* when the *Ramlila* processon was attacked while it was passing in front of a mosque in Jabalpur. At this time there was an awakening of the youth resulting in the establishment of students' organisations in the District. In 1925, the Bharat Scouts Group, a Congress volunteer organisation, was founded at Jabalpur. In the same year the Chhatra Mandal, partly under the influence of the Congress workers, was established Next year, in 1925, a semi-cultural institution, called Maharastra Vyayamshala came into existence, and played a vital role in training and developing the youth for the national service. Another noteworthy event was the establishment of Provincial Hindu Mahasabha in 1926. The increasing communal tension encouraged the activities of the Sabha, which, two years later, held its eleventh All India Sessions at Jabalpur Subsequently, a branch of this was started in Katni in 1939.

After the Lahore Congress and the declaration of *Purna Swarajya* as the goal, events moved rapidly. The campaign opened on 26th January, 1930, which was named as Independence Day. On this day a big procession was taken out which, after parading the main thoroughfares, terminated at Tilak-bhumi where an impressive meeting was held. The following two months were spent in making necessary preparations Thus, when Gandhiji undertook his historic march from Sabarmati to Dandi, Jabalpur too, was eager and ready along with the rest of the country. On 6th April, the day Gandhiji broke the Salt Law, a huge procession was organised at Jabalpur, by the redoubtable leader, Pandit Dwarka Prasad Mishra. It wended its way to the historic *Samadhi* of the warrior-queen Durgavati, about thirteen miles from the city. There the processionists took a solemn vow to continue the struggle for independence to a successful conclusion.[1] On 8th April, volunteers went forth and symbolically broke the Salt Law at Jabalpur. This ritual was repeated at Sihora and Katni with the same solemnity. The tension further grew when Jawaharlal Nehru was arrested while on his way to Raipur Hindi C. P. Provincial Conference. In protest a complete *hartal* was observed on 19th April. In the absence of the President-elect Seth Govind Das was appointed President and a Provincial War Council was formed. On return from the Raipur Conference the leaders of Jabalpur held a mass meeting on 20th April and broke the Sedition Law. Pandit Ravi Shankar Shukla brought to this meeting

1. *Atma Nireekshan*, Vol. II, p. 194.

eight boys of the Raipur *Anathalaya*. These young volunteers, dressed in saffron-coloured clothes with red bands across their shoulders, sang two inspiring songs which kept the audience enthralled. Certain portions of *Bharat Men Angrezi Raj* and the proscribed poem *Ranabheri* were read out[1].

The police immediately seized the leaders, one by one including Dwarka Prasad Mishra, Seth Govind Das and V. D. Bhargava. Makhanlal Chaturvedi, then staying with a friend in Jabalpur, was also taken into custody. Pandit Ravi Shankar Shukla, travelling to Balaghat, was arrested on his way and was brought to Jabalpur. They were all tried on three charges including sedition, and four of them were sentenced to two years, imprisonment under each count. V. D. Bhargava was awarded one year's rigorous imprisonment. While Jabalpur was thus stirred by these arrests, events were piling one upon another in the rest of the District. Protest meetings were held at Sihora, Khitola, Ganjtal, Khamaria Bazar, Talad, Ponda Bazar, Gowraha, Bachaiya Bazar, Majhgawan, Majholi Bazar, Phanwani and Sleemanabad where the high-handed acts of Government were severly condemned. The reading of the proscribed literature also was in vogue throughout the District. The Movement was further stimulated by Pandit Motilal Nehru's visit on 26th June, when he publicly called upon the leaders to intensify their activities[2]. Popular sentiment was greatly aroused and, when the local leaders of Katni were being taken for trial to Jabalpur, about 250 volunteers boarded the same train without tickets, and on reaching Jabalpur demonstrated in their favour[3]. This was followed by the arrest, on 18th July, of Balmukund Tripathi, Secretary of the Hindi C P. Congress Committee He was sentenced to three and a half years rigorous imprisonment

The picketing of shops and distilleries was another aspect of the Movement which also resulted in numerous arrests An effective method adopted by the *Satyagrahis* to stop the sale of liquor was to prevent the vehicles carrying the stock from leaving the warehouses. Thus, on 19th July when truck loaded with the barrels attempted to move from the werehouse a volunteer, Nana Naidu lay flat on the road in front of the truck and refused to move. Finding the volunteers adamant the police opened fire injuring four of them[4]. Warehouses in Katni were similarly picketed[5]. This campaign

1. Civil Disobedience Movement, File No. 7 (Jabalpur Collectorate).
2. Report (Secret) on the political situation in the C P. and Berar for the second half June 1930.
3. Ibid, for the second half of July 1930.
4. *Ibid.*
5. *Ibid*, for the first half of July 1930

resulted in a fall in the consumption of country liquor in Jabalpur by 75 per cent during this period.

Many new ordinances were issued by Government to strengthen the repressive laws. The Press Ordinance came into force on 27th April. Under this ordinance securities were demanded from a number of nationalist papers which naturally refused to do so. Thus *Koshal Samachar* of Jabalpur ceased its publication.[1] Another local newpaper *Lokmat* was also penalised for failure to make declaration under the Press Act[2].

To deal with the youths and students who joined the struggle, the authorities closed down the Robertson College at Jabalpur (now Mahakoshal Mahavidyalaya) *Sine die* from 4th August[3]. It was reopened only on the condition that political demonstration would not be allowed within its premises. The Government High School, similarly closed down, was reopened in mid-November. One peculiar feature of this Movement in Jabalpur was the social boycott of both the troops and the police[4]. In the cantonment area the shop-keepers refused to sell certain things to Indian troops. At Katni the social boycott of police took a different form. and one or more volunteers always trailed a constable going into the city and prevented things being sold to him[5].

Meanwhile the *satyagraha* against the iniquitous Forest Law was also in full swing. It spread to the forests in the north where, at Katni and Sihora, the police attacked the forest *Satyagrahis* and arrested a large number of them. In the Murwara tahsil there was a sudden outbreak of lawlessness, described by the Deputy Commissioner as "mass hysteria", which mainly took the shape of mass fellings by villagers[6] The local authorities reported that the "situation is now distinctly dangerous and the tenantry getting entirely out of hands .... The damage certainly runs in to several thousands of rupees. Mass fellings by villagers have been reported from over a dozen different places, some being very difficult of access in the

1. *Ibid,*

2. *Ibid,* first half of August 1930.

3. *Ibid.*

4 Civil Disobedience Movement (Miscellaneous) File No. 17 (Jabalpur Collectorate).

5. *Ibid.*

6. Report (Secret) on the political situation in the Central Provinces and Berar for the first half of August 1930.

Murwara tahsil[1]." Finding the situation alarming, Government imposed punitive police in the tahsil and authorised whipping of *Satyagrahis* as a deterrent measure[2].

But the repression, instead of intimidating further lashed the revoloutionary fury of the Congress rank and file. The enthusiasm of the workers stimulated that of the youths, and a branch of Navajawan Bharat Sabha was opened at Jabalpur. Some of its members, led by Ramkumar Sharma, attempted to propagate nationalism in the army.[3] Day after day, stimulating slogans and revolutionary posters were found at the Kamania gate and the Fountain area. On a black-board placed near the Kotwali area were written appeals, calling the police to join the freedom struggle[4]. In this posture of events the terrorist movement was revived with all its zeal. In the year 1929, it assumed serious proportions when some red posters of the Hindustan Socialist Republican Army were found in circulation in the Jabalpur–Sagar tract.

With the calling off of the Civil Disobedience Movement after the conclusion of Gandhi—Irwin Pact on 5th March, 1931, the agitation in Jabalpur District also ended. The heroic death of Bhagat Singh and the courageous bearing of Jatindra Nath Das, one of the accused, after a prolonged hunger strike, roused the people to an emotional enthusiasm of patriotism and of hatred for the Government. For two days processions paraded the city streets carrying their pictures with the caption "blood be required for blood"[5] On 8th April the martyrs' day was observed in the city with a public meeting presided over by D. P. Mishra, Laxman Singh Chauhan being the main speaker[6].

Peace in the District was again disturbed when the second Civil Disobedience Movement began soon after the re-arrest of Mahatma Gandhi on 4th January, 1932, on his return from the Round Table Conference in England. But this time the Government was ready with all necessary punitive measures The Unlawful Association Ordinance (IV of 1932) was applied to Jabalpur and nine other

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1. Confidential Report from the Deputy Commissioner, Jabalpur, to Commissioner, Jabalpur Division, dated 5th August 1930, File No. 6 (Jabalpur Collectorate).
2. Report (Secret) on the political situation in C. P. and Berar for the first half of August 1930
3. Civil Disobedience Movement, File No. 7 (Jabalpur Collecorate).
4. *Ibid.*
5. Report (Secret) on the political situation of the C. P and Berar for the second half of March 1931.
6. Fortnightly Report (confidential) dated 13 April 1931, File No. 5 (Jabalpur Collectorate).

districts of Central Provinces[1]. The Mahakoshal Congress Committee as well as all the District Congress Committees[2] were declared illegal. The Navajawan Bharat Sabha of Jabalpur was also declared unlawful.

In Jabalpur the Movement began in a unique way[3]. A public meeting was held on 4th January, 1932, at Tilak—maidan at which D. P. Mishra and Seth Govind Das were present. They knew that if any speeches were made they would be arrested. But they did not wish to be arrested before some instructions could be passed on to workers to continue the struggle. Therefore they decided that it would be a dumb meeting. Thousands of persons kept squatting on the ground day and night, but no speeches were delivered. People from the distant villages too came to the gathering and went back with instructions. Worship of the Flag was arranged at which offerings were brought by thousands of people, and funds were collected to keep up the Movement. After having kept up in this manner the meeting formed itself into a procession which was lathi-charged, and D. P. Mishra, Seth Govind Das, Thakur Laxman Singh Chauhan and Pandit Sunderlal were arrested. The first two were sentenced to one year's rigorous imprisonment and fines of Rs. 1,500 and Rs. 2,000 respectively, while Thakur Laxman Singh was sentenced to six months' and Pandit Sunderlal to nine months' imprisonment in addition to a fine of Rs. 100 each. One of the newspapers of Jabalpur, *Lokmat*, was also suspended.

There were also sporadic disturbances in different parts of the District. The persistent agitation led to numerous arrests and, according to official figures, the number of persons convicted uptil March 1933 was 339, including 7 women and 23 minors. Some stir was caused in July, 1933, when an attempt was made to hold the conference of the National Boy-Scouts. On 26th January, 1934 the Independence Day was celebrated with great zest in many towns and villages. In Jabalpur city a huge procession was taken out and Seth Govind Das was once again put under arrest while addressing the meeting.

One particular episode in this connection deserves mention It was a conflict between the rights of the Municipal Council and the powers of the bureaucracy. Dwarka Prasad Mishra who had been elected President of the Jabalpur Municipality just before he was arrested in 1932, assumed office on his release from prison, and

1. C. P. Gazette Extraordinary, Political and Military Deparlment, Notification No. 224-C. D. dated 19 January 1932.
2. *Ibid*, No. 59-C.D., dated 8 January 1932
3 *Atma* Nireekshan, Vol. II, pp. 270—74.

soon after the question arose about the appointment of the Secretary to the Municipality. The person chosen by the Municipal Council was a civil resister and a Congressman and, therefore, not to the liking of the bureaucracy. The issue became further complicated, because while the former Minister for Local Self-Government, M. Y. Shariff, had upheld the Municipality's selection, the Minister who succeeded him, Rai Bahadur K. S. Naidu, reversed the decision. Apart from the impropriety of such reversal of Government decision, the question was whether the municipality had a right to appoint a civil resister as its Secretary. This battle was fought to the bitter end until at last the Government had to take recourse to the drastic remedy of suspending seven sections of the Municipal Act. A letter written by the President of the Municipality to the Government exposing the illegality of the whole proceedings brought home the principles behind the fight. He said "This is no occasion to express regret on his removal from the presidentship and Government's action was a confession that whatever had been done by him was strictly in accordance with the provisions of the Municipal Act, from the operation of which they had exempted the Jabalpur Municipality. Since last week he had ceased to be recognised as President by the Government as, in spite of President's request, the Police assistance legally due to him under section 222 of the Central Provinces Municipal Act was refused to him. The Local Self-Government under the Ministership of Rai Bahadur K. S. Naidu stood for a complete submission to the unlawful behests of the bureaucracy. The working of the Local Self-Government in Jabalpur served to give an idea of the painful fact that whatever be the form of local or provincial or Central Government, Bureaucracy remained the master of the situation and its most obedient servants alone could retain office. Having especially singled him out for disqualification to the Assembly, the problem faced them of keeping him out of the municipality for fear of being returned again as Chairman. The elections due last September were postponed by the Minister on the ground that the electoral rolls were incorrectly prepared though certified as correct by the Deputy Commissioner. The electoral rolls prepared again under the supervision of the same Extra Assistant Commissioner, now appointed as his successor have been rotting in the Municipal office without any sign of election. Unfortunately for the Government, the Municipal Act required at least one election prior to the supersession of a Municipal body. Thus there was no escape for the authorities from his continuing as President. Hence the executive fiat in the shape of a Government notification depriving the local municipality the right of electing its chairman. This was undoubtedly the Government's

admission of confidence reposed in him by the local tax-payers. The Government ought to remember that although Mr. V. J. Patel and Pandit Motilal Nehru were dead, their spirits continued to inspire the younger generation which regardless of its personal ambitions, was pledged to eternal fight"[1]. This episode is historically interesting only in so far as it shows how the struggle was kept up on all possible fronts.

Other political developments that deserve notice are the establishment of a number of political organisations, and the beginning of the Socialist movement in the District. In 1937 the All India Hindustan Seva Dal was started to impart training to Congress volunteeers. Next year, in 1938, a branch of the All India Socialist party was established, mainly due to the efforts of Dr. George De Silva. The same year a Youths' Conference at Katni passed certain resolutions suggesting the boycott of British goods. The Rashtriya Sevak Sangh and Rashtriya Azad Sangh too sprang up about this time.

The elections of early 1937 saw the Congress ministry established in Central Provinces. It was a phenomenal success for the Congress which bagged all seats in the districts, except the Jabalpur-Mandla rural constituency which returned a Muslim League candidate. On 4th July Dr. N. B. Khare formed the first Congress Ministry consisting of six other ministers. The ministry had to face, almost at the beginning of its term of office, a communal clash of some magnitude at Jabalpor in October, 1938. But prompt measures were taken to put down the disturbances.

The 52nd All India Congress Session of March 1939 at Tripuri was a memorable event in the history of Jabalpur District. Seth Govind Das was the Chairman of the Reception Committee. It was held at Vishnu Dutt Nagar in Tripuri, one of the historical places on the Narmada, where nature and men combined to deck it with all the ornaments of art. To symbolize the interest of the Congress in the *Kisans* a colossal statue of a peasant carrying a plough on his shoulders was set up at one side of the rostrum facing the audience. The presidential procession was led by a majestic chariot drawn by fifty-two elephants. But the President, Subhash Chandra Bose, was laid up with high fever and had to be carried in a stretcher to the meetings. In the absence of the President Maulana Azad read out the Presidential Address and Seth Govind Das read the Welcome Address. The Resolution adopted by the Congress Working Committee was that it "instructs the Provincial Congress Committee to treat a person as habitual wearer of *Khaddar*

1. The History of Freedom Movement in Madhya Pradesh, p. 420.

who has shown himself as having worn *Khaddar* for a period of six months prior to his election to office or as a member of the Congress Committee. It was also decided that the Khadi clause should apply to all those who were granted Congress ticket in Municipal and Local Boards and other elections even as it applies to members of legislatures."

The Tripuri Congress Session was marked by abuse and anxious atmosphere due to a sharp division of opinion among the members on fundamental issues. The Bengal Congress Committee thought of giving an ultimatum with a time limit to Britain. But the majority did not endorse it. Tripuri, thus, inevitably led to the breaking away of Subhash Chandra Bose and his followers from the Congress who later formed the Forward Block.

Soon after, in 1939, the Second World War broke out and the Congress refused "Cooperation in a war which is conducted on imperialistic lines". The ministry resigned in November, 1939. This was followed by the Individual *Satyagraha*, and Jabalpur once again became active. Between October and November two top leaders, Jawaharlal Nehru and Dr Rajendra Prasad, visited Jabalpur where they exhorted the people not to support Britain's war efforts. On 21st November Dwarka Prasad Mishra inaugurated the Individual *Satyagraha* at Maharajpur, about four miles from Jabalpur, and called upon the people not to make any contribution towards the war efforts. He was arrested, tried in the jail and sentenced to one year's rigorous imprisonment. The circle of individual *Satyagraha* started by him speedily extended bringing within it seven improtant leaders, *viz*, Seth Govind Das, Kashi Prasad Pande, Hanumant Rao, Matua Chaitu Mehra, Beohar Rajendra Singh, Sawai Mal Jain and N P. Mishra The first phase of the *Satyagraha* ended on 15th December, 1939. Then began the second phase on 7th January, 1941, in which Kunji Lal Dube, Puran Chandra Sharma, Bhawani Prasad Tiwari and Govind Prasad Khamparia courted arrest It continued intermittently upto 4th December when it was ultimately called off. On 27th April, 1942, Mahatma Gandhi, accompanied by Mahadev Desai, reached Jabalpur and called upon the *Stayagrahais* to march on foot in the direction of Delhi, where upon volunteers from all over the province started pouring into Jabalpur, leaving behind a track of anti-British feeling. Faced by this dramatic turn in the situation, Government decided to arrest and send them to jails in their home districts. There was a large congregation of such *Satyagrahis*, particularly at Katni, which was a point of exit for Delhi. Out of 166 Congressmen arrested between January and August, 1941, 57 came from contiguous districts

From now onwards the country moved irresistably to a final clash. On 8th August, 1942, the All India Congress Committee launched the 'Quit India' movement. The Government reacted vigorously by declaring the Congress illegal and arrested its top leaders. Its consequence was wide-spread riot and sabotage throughout the country. In Jabalpur the situation threatened to get out of hands as soon as the news of the arrest of Mahatma Gandhi reached the town followed by the arrest of local leaders[1]. There was a protest meeting on 9th August at Tilak-bhumi where it was decided that public meetings would be held every evening and that a *hartal* should be observed for one week. One of the leaders, when he started speaking on the Congress Resolution, was stopped and later arrested along with nine other local workers in the town. An order was promulgated prohibiting the holding of meetings. but this did not prevent the crowds collecting at the same place on the following day when two political workers from Uttar Pradesh, namely, Swami Ayōdhya Nand Saraswati and Sheo Nand Saraswati, addressed it. Later, both of them were arrested. The defiant crowd was charged and dispersed by tear-gas shells. But on 2nd August, the agitation took a violent turn at Jabalpur when a demonstration of Congress workers at the Fountain was cane-charged by the police. The people, forgetting their pledge of non-violence, rose, cut telegraph and telephone wires and up-rooted the posts, entered Public Offices and the Niwarganj Police out-post and damaged the records. Next day about 150 students and their sympathisers took out a procession in Omti locality and marched towards the District Court area. Military force was then posted at all strategic points and Government buildings. In spite of all these precautions, on 14th August. two processions marched through the streets, and later converged on the Fountain. The police opened fire on them, and one student was wounded. Meanwhile, numerous arrests were made in the District, and an estimate put the number of persons who were arrested upto the end of August, at more than 200.

It is not possible to recall here all incidents that happened at Jabalpur during the following weeks. A few noteworthy events, however, deserve special mention. On 6th September, a public meeting was held at Miloniganj, even though banned, and this resulted in lathi charges, throwing of brick-bats at the police and the

1. The following account is based on the Files (Secret) of District Civil Disobedience Movement 1942-43, preserved in the Collectorate, Jabalpur.

arrest of local Congressmen. On the same day people defied the prohibitory order there and collected at Fountain area, barricaded the streets, surrounded the police and the officers and pelted stones and bricks until they were fired upon and dispersed by lathi charges. Further risings took place at Katni where an attempt was made to burn the post office. On 7th September two Railway Booking Offices were looted. During September-October, 1942, attempts were also made to sabotage the railway, telephone and telegram communications in Garha, Barela and Panagar.

The temper in rural area, too, was anything but subservient. In some of the villages, like Patan, Majhgawan, Kundam, Sihora, Majholi, Kaimori, Rithi, Katangi, Sleemanabad, Bahoriband and Piparia, Movement gained some momentum. Public meetings were held, *hartals* were observed, anti-Government placards were carried in processions and demonstrations were organised by students in these places. At Baghraji a party of armed villagers, carrying the Congress flags, started the Forest *satyagraha* by cutting down trees. The local police arrested eight persons which led to a demonstration by a mob of 300 to 400 persons before the police chowki. Fearing a large-scale peasant uprising, the Government endeavoured to placate the rural population by making a fairly wide-spread distribution of cheap grains and other essential articles. There was also some industrial unrest at Kymore where there was a strike at the Asbestos Cement Works.[1]

From this time onwards the Movement slowly lost its violence. Months passed by; sullen, suppressed people now and then erupted in brief outbursts of anger. So the matters rested till the end of 1944. The end of the Second World War left the British Empire in a weak state. It was no longer the invincible leviathan that it used to be. It naturally, therefore, brought about a radical change in its outlook. In May, 1945, Mahatma Gandhi was released from detention on the grounds of ill-health. Shortly afterwards, the Labour Government came to power in Britain. The new Government decided to hold elections; these were held at the beginning of 1946. The results were an overwhelming victory for Congress in all seats, except Jabalpur-Mandla Rural Constituency. About this time the trial of the India National Army Prisoners created another wave of popular demonstrations. More dangerous still was the mutiny in Royal Indian Navy in 1945. On 27th February a

1. In this movement the total number of detentions in the District was 150, convictions 400, number of Government buildings attacked 4, firing at 2 places, and one person shot in police firing (Govind Sahai, 42 Rebellion, p 380)

sympathetic strike started at the Indian Signal Corps at Jabalpur. They marched in an orderly fashion and held a meeting, protesting against the treatment meted out to the Naval Ratings and making their own demands for better pay, rations and housing arrangements. One of the strikers said, "Although we all are born as slaves we do not want to die as slaves and we shall shed the last drop of our blood for our country's sake[1]". These developments in the background and world opinion in the foreground made the British Government declare its intention of leaving India by June, 1948, and they appointed Lord Mountbatten as Viceroy to carry out the transfer of power. Indian Independence Act was passed through the British Parliament on 1st July, 1947. The date for the transfer of power to India and Pakistan was to be 15th August 1947. Thereafter the history of Jabalpur District merges with the history of the Indian Republic.

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1. Quoted in History of Freedom Movement in Madhya Pradesh, p 484

CHAPTER III

PEOPLE

Jabalpur is one of the more populous districts of Madhya Pradesh. Among the districts it ranked fourth in population in 1961. Its population of 1,273,825 persons consisted of 662,045 males and 611,780 females, and was nearly 21.8 per cent higher than a decade ago. The increasing pressure of population in the District is revealed by the rise in the density of population from 277 persons per square mile in 1951 to 326 in 1961. The eleven towns[1] of the District had a population of 472,646 persons, the largest urban population among all districts, while 801,179 persons lived in its 2,267 populated villages.

The tahsil-wise break-up of population is tabulated below :—

Tahsil	Area		Population			Density per Sq. mile
	Sq. miles	Sq. Km.	Male	Female	Total	
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)
Murwara ..	1,056.4	2,736.1	159,286	153,400	312,686	296
Sihora	1,101.8	2,853.5	142,053	140,175	282,328	256
Patan	542.7	1,405.5	68,381	66,126	134,507	248
Jabalpur ..	872.3	2,259.3	292,325	252,079	544,404	624
Jabalpur District	3,908.2*	10,122.2	662,045	611,780	1,273,825	326

*The State Survey area figure for the District includes the forest area of 335.0 Sq. miles (867.6 Sq. Km.), but tahsil-wise break-up of this area is not available.

[1] A town in the 1961 Census had to be either

(i) a municipality, cantonment or corporation, or

(ii) a habitation with a population of at least 5,000, at least three-fourths of the adult male population being engaged in non-agricultural occupations.

Industrial development and the consequent growth of town-ships have been the principal influences on the distribution of popu
ships have been the principal influences on the distribution of popu-
had the largest population and Patan tahsil the smallest. The development of industries led to the concentration of large numbers in the urban areas of Jabalpur and Murwara tahsils. Patan tahsil had been mainly agricultural and had no urban centres in 1951 Census. But Patan and Katangi, emerged as new town-ships in the Census of 1961. These urban centres are, however, small compared with towns in Jabalpur tahsil and Murwara town group. Sihora tahsil also has one urban centre, but can hardly be compared with Jabalpur and Murwara tahsils in respect of industrial development. Among the eleven towns Jabalpur has the lar-gest population, *i. e.*, 295,375 persons, while Katangi with a popula-tion of 5,582 persons is the smallest.

Proportion of Sexes—Women outnumbered men in the District in 1901, the sex-ratio (number of females per thousand males) be-ing 1028. Thereafter the sex-ratio began to decline con-tinually in the following decades except between 1941 and 1951 when a slight rise was noticed. In the 1951-61 decade the earlier trend towards a decline in the sex-ratio has reasserted itself The sex-ratio of the District during the last sixty years, *i.e.*, from 1901 to 1961 is shown in the table below.

Census Year	Population			Sex Ratio (Number of females per 1,000 males)
	Total	Males	Females	
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
1901	679,859	335,192	344,667	1,028
1911 ..	745,022	372,733	372,289	999
1921.. .. .	744,783	376,499	368,284	978
1931 . ..	772,608	391,036	381,572	976
1941.. .	909,245	468,860	440,385	989
1951..	1,045,596	538,739	506,857	941
1961.. .	1,273,825	662,045	611,780	924

The net variation in the District population since 1901 can best be seen from the following table:

Census Year	Population	Net Variation in Population in					
		10 yrs.	20 yrs.	30 yrs.	40 yrs.	50 yrs.	60 yrs.
1901	679,859	65,163 (9.58)	64,724 (9.55)	92,719 (13.64)	229,386 (33.74)	365,737 (53.80)	593,966 (87.37)
1911	715,022	-239 (-0.03)	27,586 (3.70)	164,223 (22.04)	300,574 (40.34)	528,803 (70 98)	.. ..
1921	714,783	27,825 (3.74)	161,462 (22.08)	300,813 (40.39)	529,042 (71.03)	..	..
1931	772,608	136,637 (17.69)	272,988 (35.33)	501,217 (64.87)	.. ..	.. ..	.. ..
1941	909,245	136,351 (15.00)	364,580 (40.10)	..	..	..	..
1951	1,045,596	228,229 (21.83)	..	..	.	..	..
1961	1,273,825	..	..	..	..	..	..

Note.—Figures in brackets indicate percentages.

In the 1901-11 decade the District population rose by 9.58 per cent. The birth-rate ranged between 30.13 and 62.15 per mille and the death-rate between 19.81 and 53.00 per mille in the different tahsils. Large increases in population occurred in the town of Murwara where lime kilns attracted a large number of labourers, and in Jabalpur where the strength of the military garrison was raised. The opening of Gun Carriage Factory attracted a considerable amount of skilled labour from the North. During the decade nearly 99,000 persons came into the District, while nearly 56,000 emigrated to other parts of the country. The proportion of immigrants in the District population was 133 per mille, only 26 of these coming from contiguous districts.

In the following decade, 1911-21, the influenza epidemic of 1918-19 took a heavy toll of life leading to a fall of 0.03 per cent in the District population The death-rate ranged between 34.12

per mille in 1913 and 106.31 per mille in 1918-19, while the birth-rate ranged between 35.79 in 1919-20 and 50.67 in 1912. The excess of deaths over births was not less than 40,073. This fact was partly obscured by the large number of *Chaitaras* who moved temporarily for wheat harvest in the District and the flow of immigrants to the growing industrial areas. The total excess of immigrants over emigrants during the decade was about 65,000. The *Chaitaras* numbered 15,153 out of the total immigrant population of 129,000 persons. Migration to and from the contiguous areas of the State was marked by the predominance of females, the opposite holding good for immigrants from other provinces. Of the 63,000 emigrants, as many as 32,783 persons emigrated to Assam to work in the tea gardens. The District was visited by plague in the early 'twenties and scarcity prevailed from 1928 to 1930. The population increased by 27,825 or 3.71 per cent only between 1921 and 1931. The total number of births duly adjusted for variation in area on pro-rata basis during the decade was 303,096 and deaths 268,540. The mean decennial birth-rate (registered) was 39.9 per cent, and that of death 35.4 per cent. Jabalpur city and Murwara tahsil with their potteries and cement works were responsible for the increase in the District population. The rise in the population of Jabalpur city was 20.19 per cent and in Katni-Murwara town 11.57 per cent, while the rural population of Jabalpur, Sihora and Patan tahsils actually declined. This feature in 1931 has to be viewed with reference to wheat harvesters who were already present in large numbers in 1921, whereas stream of labourers had just begun to enter the District at the time of 1931 Census. The number of immigrants recorded at 1931 Census was 114,775, nearly 14,000 less than in the earlier decade. Curiously enough this difference corresponds to the number of *Chaitaras* shown in the 1921 Census. In 1931 the proportion of immigrants in the District was 148 per mille, of which 51 came from other districts in the State and 97 from other places in India, the United Provinces and Rewa State contributing about 17,000 and 34,000 respectively. Immigrants from the United Provinces, a large number of whom remained concentrated in Jabalpur city, were either merchants or professional workmen attracted to an industrial centre. In 1931 a few villages, *e.g.*, Kajarmara, Laxmipur, Ranipur, Madotal, Garha, Kachpura and Purna, are shown as sending out daily labourers to Jabalpur city. The extent of emigration as a whole is not known. However, emigrants to Assam during the decade 1921-31 numbered 9,666.

In the following decade (1931-41) the population increased considerably and an addition of 136,637 or 17.69 per cent was regis-

tered over 1931. The population of the District now stood at 909,245. The net variation during the 40 years since 1901 was merely 34 per cent. Except for Patan tahsil where population declined by about 3.46 per cent, all the tahsils had increases in the population. The increase in the population of Jabalpur tahsil was the highest, *i.e.*, about 28 per cent, while that of Sihora and Murwara increased by about 16 per cent. The total number of registered births, duly adjusted for the variation in area on pro-rata basis, was 389,584 during the decade giving a mean decennial birth-rate of 46.3 per cent whereas deaths numbered 291,212 giving a mean decennial death-rate of 34.6 per cent.

Between 1941 and 1951 the population of the District increased approximately by 15 per cent. The increase in industrial production in pursuance of the war efforts offered greater employment in the industrial areas of Jabalpur and Murwara which thus attracted more immigrants. The movement of displaced persons also caused an upward shift in population The largest addition to population occurred in Jabalpur tahsil where it rose by 24 6 per cent. The population of Murwara tahsil increased by 16.7 per cent, Sihora and Patan tahsils also recorded slight increase of 4.8 per cent and 1.7 per cent, respectively.

The proportion of immigrants per mille of actual population from other districts of Madhya Pradesh in 1951 was 54 and that from other parts 119, which showed an increase over the respective proportion of 51 and 97 in 1931 The extent of immigration (1951) can best be seen from the following table:—

Name of the tract where enumerated.	Born in India				Born beyond India	
	within the State of Enumeration		States in India beyond the State of enumeration		Pakistan	Other countries.
	District of enumeration	Other Districts.	States Adjacent to the State of enumeration	Other States		
Jabalpur Tahsil Rural ..	160,279	6,137	6,004	265	660	30
Sihora Tahsil Rural	226,177	1,822	2,747	69	2	6
Murwara Tahsil Rural ..	201,451	3,079	16,139	1,133	9,105	123
Patan Tahsil Rural ..	98,566	8,495	1,441	46	..	
Rural Total ..	689,473	19,533	26,331	1,513	9,775	160
Jabalpur city ..	152,315	31,585	39,564	15,800	13,695	1,039
Jabalpur Non-city Urban ..	22,925	2,267	11,612	600	4,372	37
Urban Total ..	175,240	36,852	51,176	16,400	18,067	1,076
District Total ..	864,713	56,385	77,507	17,913	27,842	1,236

From the above table it is evident that in 1951 the immigrant population in Jabalpur District was nearly 1.8 lakhs, of which about 96,000 were males and the rest females. Similarly, of the total migrants enumerated in the District, as many as 1·24 lakhs found home in the urban areas of the District and nearly 57,000 settled in the rural areas of the District. Jabalpur city alone sheltered nearly 1·05 lakh immigrants on account of its being an important business and industrial centre. Because of the change in the system of enumeration in 1951 Census, temporary and periodic migration was less noticeable.

Of the non-Indian nationals who numbered 674 (572 males and 102 females) in the District, 304 were Pakistani, 73 British, 8 American, 60 Afghan, 11 Portuguese, 1 Burmese and 203 Nepalese Majority of these resided in the urban tract, especially in the Jabalpur city.

As for daily migration to and from Jabalpur, the Census 1951 observed: "All daily movement of people to and from Jabalpur is also becoming significant. The semi-Government Road Transport Services alone handled an average daily passenger traffic of 1,754 persons during 1950-51 between Jabalpur and places within twenty miles of it. The narrow-gauge Eastern Railways similarly, moved about 221 persons daily, while the broad-guage Central Railways accounted for a daily movement of 1,139 persons to and from Jabalpur."[1]

The figures of emigration from the rural and urban areas are not available. However, the movement can be gauged from the mean decennial growth rate in the respective tracts. The rural growth rate of Jabalpur increased between 1921-31 and 1931-41 by 10.2 per cent; while in the second interval between 1931-41 and 1941-51, it was lower by 2·8 per cent. The corresponding rise and fall in the mean decennial growth rate of the general population in Jabalpur District was 12·5 and 2 2 per cent. respectively. In other words, the fall in the mean decennial growth-rate of general population of Jabalpur during the second interval is less than the corresponding fall in case of rural population. This is due to migration

1. Census of India, 1951, Madhya Pradesh, p 31.

from rural into urban areas. Figures of emigration from urban areas are not available, but this movement can be gauged from the deterioration in the population of some of the towns. Jabalpur Cantonment calls for no comments, because of the usual movement of army personnel.

The total number of births registered during the decade 1941—51 was 374,551. Deaths in the same period numbered 314,778. The mean decennial birth-rate and death-rate for this period were 38.4 and 32.2 respectively.

According to 1961 Census the population of the District was 1,273,825, registering an increase of 21.89 per cent over 1951 The population of Jabalpur tahsil increased by about 26.5 per cent, closely followed by Patan where it increased by 23.92 per cent. Murwara and Sihora increased by 16.7 and 18.2 per cent. respectively, during the decade.

Of the total population in Jabalpur, 2,18,112 persons came from outside the District. The largest number, *i.e.*, 1,32,155 came from other districts of the State, while other States in India sent 90,828 persons, Uttar Pradesh, the most outstanding one, accounting for 37,791 Apart from these, 23,718 persons, born in countries in Asia beyond India (including U.S.S.R.), 11 born in countries in Europe (excluding U.S.S.R.), 28 born in countries in Africa, 30 of American origin, 1 of Australasian origin, and the rest 1,005 whose place of birth was not known were enumerated in 1961

The changes in the density of population between 1901 and 1961 are shown below.

Tahsil	1901	1911	1921	1931	1941	1951	1961
Murwara	153	172	159	187	217	251	296
Sihora ..	169	186	180	178	207	217	256
Patan	.	179	211	203	196	200	248
Jabalpur	381	300	294	308	396	494	624
Jabalpur District	174	191	191	198	233	268	326

Note.—Adjusted population figures as given in Table on Growth of Population, and area figures as in Table on Tahsil wise population have been used. In 1951 Census the density of population was reported as 277 per sq. mile as the District area was taken as 3,779 sq. miles.

The density of population increased steadily from 174 per sq. mile in 1901 to 326 per sq. mile in 1961 with one break, during the unhealthy decade 1911-21, when it remained static. However, there has been a noticeable rise in density only after 1931.

Distribution between Urban and Rural Areas

As has been stated earlier, Jabalpur has the largest urban population among the districts of the State. According to 1961 Census it has 11 towns and 2,267 populated villages. In 1961 the rural area covering 3,818 sq. miles (9,890.4 sq. kms.), had a population of 801,179. The density of population in the rural area thus was 210 per sq. mile. In the urban area extending over 89.5 sq. miles (231.8 sq. kms.) there were 472.646 persons and the density of population was 5,280 per sq. mile. The following table gives the tahsil-wise break-up of rural and urban population.

Tahsil	No. of Villages		No. of Towns	Population		
	Inhabited	Uninhabited		Rural	Urban	Total
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)
Murwara .	515	44	4	239,895	72,791 (23.28)	312,686
Sihora ..	715	83	1	268,034	14,194 (5.03)	282,228
Patan	448	39	2	123,308	11,199 (8.33)	134,507
Jabalpur ..	589	34	4	169,942	374,462 (68.78)	544,404
Jabalpur District .	2,267	200	11	801,179	472,646	1,273,825

NOTE.—Figures in brackets denote urban population as a percentage of total population.

In 1961 the District had 1,787 villages with population less than 500, and 467 villages with population between 500 and 1,000. There were only 13 villages whose population exceeded 2,000, but less than 5,000. Of the four tahsils Jabalpur had the largest urban population. A very large proportion of population in Sihora and Patan tahsils was rural. Since 1911 the proportion of rural population to total population started declining. During the last two decades there have been sizeable increase in the proportion of urban population. Notwithstanding this change, the District continues to be pre-

dominantly rural. The rural-urban break-up of District population for the period 1901-61 is shown below.

Year	Population	Rural	Urban
1901	679,859	569,811 (84)	110,048 (16)
1911	745,022	623,127 (84)	121,895 (16)
1921	744,783	609,921 (82)	134,862 (18)
1931	772,608	620,503 (80)	152,105 (20)
1941	909,245	699,250 (77)	209,995 (23)
1951	1,045,596	746,785 (71)	298,811 (29)
1961	1,273,825	801,179 (63)	472,646 (37)

NOTE.—Figures in brackets are percentages to total population.

During the period 1901-61 the rural population increased by 40.7 per cent while the rise in the urban population was 328.6 per cent. This disparity in the two rates is explained by the growth of industries leading to the inflow of immigrants into the towns in search of employment and the migration discussed from villages as in the foregoing section. It has been shown in the table on Immigration that according to 1951 Census nearly 1.24 lakh immigrants were enumerated in the towns of Jabalpur District.

The District had five urban centres in the Census of 1951. In the 1961 Census the Murwara group of towns, *viz*., Murwara, Tikuri factory and Ordnance factory, Katni, was enumerated as consisting three separate townships while Kymore, Panagar, Patan and Katangi were also included as towns. The population of the 11 towns in the District at different Censuses between 1901-1961, beginning

with the respective years in which they were first enumerated as towns is shown in the table below:—

Name of Town	Population 1901	1911	1921	1931	1941	1951	1961
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)	(8)
Jabalpur Tahsil—							
1. Jabalpur ..	90,316	100,651	108,973	104,317	140,227	203,659	295,375
2. Jabalpur Cantonment ..	..	..	..	20,065	38,112	34,225	41,014
3. Khamaria ..	..	..	..	..	..	19,114	30,625
4. Panagar ..	..	..	..	..	..	..	7,448
Murwara Tahsil—							
5. Murwara ..	14,137	15,812	19,682	21,959	24,630	33,884	46,169
6. Tikuri Factory Township.	..	..	..	..	..	.	7,290
7. Ordnance Factory, Katni.	..	..	..	..	..	..	7,013
8. Kymore ..	..	..	..	..	..	..	12,319
Sihora Tahsil—							
9. Sihora ..	5,595	5,432	6,387	5,764	7,026	7,929	14,194
Patan Tahsil:—							
10. Patan ..	..	..	..	..	..	..	5,617
11. Katangi ..	..	..	..	..	..	..	5,582

Note.—Till 1931 Jabalpur Cantonment was included in Jabalpur city. Khamaria grew up as a town during the 'forties. All the three, however, are more a group of contiguous townships rather than separate towns.

Displaced Persons

Following the partition of the country in 1947, considerable displacement of population occurred. Jabalpur had its own share of

28,642 persons, consisting of 15,621 males and 13,021 females, who were enumerated as displaced persons in 1951 Census. Of these, 27,656 persons came from West Pakistan, 918 from East Pakistan and 68 from elsewhere (district not stated).

Among the districts sending the bulk of displaced population were Larkhana (5,970), Dadu (3,309), Jhelum (2,382) and Karachi (2,066). Only 12 displaced persons came to this District in 1946 The arrivals from 1947 to 1949 were large in number, *i.e.*, 9,661 in 1947, 14,030 in 1948 and 4,268 in 1949 In the following two years 616 and 25 displaced persons came to the District.

The distribution of displaced population in tahsil break-up is shown in the following table:—

Tahsil	Persons	Males	Females	Rural Male	Rural Female	Urban Male	Urban Female
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)	(8)
Murwara ..	12,513	6,560	5,953	4,727	1,29[illegible]	1,833	1,658
Sihora ..	1[illegible]0	111	9	88	9	53	..
Patan	62	37	25	37	25	..	..
Jabalpur ..	15,917	8,883	7,034	385	310	8,498	6,724
Jabalpur District ..	28,642	15,621	13,021	5,237	4,639	10,384	8,382

Of the total displaced population, 18,766 persons settled in the urban areas and 9,876 in the rural areas. Jabalpur city alone accommodated the largest number of displaced persons, *i.e.*, 15222. According to 1951 Census about 99.83 per cent of the total displaced population was engaged in non-agricultural pursuits and 0·17 *per cent* in agricultural pursuits. Slightly more than 50 per cent of the displaced persons were engaged in 'Commerce'.

LANGUAGE

Jabalpur with about 90 per cent of its population speaking Hindi, is linguistically a homogeneous district. The *Awadhi-cum-*

Bagheli dialect of Eastern Hindi dominates the entire tract. However, *Bagheli* is spoken in its purity in the north-east of the District. "In the remaining area it more and more approaches the *Bundeli* of Panna, Damoh and Narsinghpur."[1] Dr. Grierson further observed that, *Awadhi* and *Bagheli* are practically the same dialect. "The only two important points in which *Bagheli* differs are that it is fond of adding the enclitic word *te* or *tai* to the past tenses of verbs, and that it has abandoned the letter *b*. which is typical of the first and second persons of the future tense in *Awadhi*, and taken *h* instead. Thus, while *Awadhi* has *dekh bau*. I will see, *Bagheli* has *dekhihau*."[2]

"Some distinctive points of *Bagheli*, noted by Dr. Grierson are that the ante-penultimate vowel is shortened in inflection as *chakar* a servant, *chak (a) rase*. from the servant. There is a tendency to change *w* to *b*—*aba*. he came, *jabab* an answer. The locative termination is *ma* instead of *men*. The genitive of the personal pronoun is *mor*, *tor*. Own is *apan*- oblique *ap (a) ne*, not *apna*. The termination of future is formed with an *h* as *kahihaun*, I will say. In the first person plural the termination is, however, *b* as *ham Kahab*, we will say. The expletive *tai* is added to the past tense of verbs. as *de' raha-tai*, he was giving.

"As stated above this District is the meeting place of two dialects and this has given rise to a peculiar mixture, which looks like a compromise between them for example *chalo ga* went away, is neither *Bagheli* nor *Bundeli*. In the former it would be *chala ga* and in the latter *chalo gao*. Similarly, *pardes ma* in a foreign country, is a compromise between the *Bagheli pardvas ma* and the *Bundeli pardes men*. Unlike *Bundeli* there is not much literature in *Bagheli* dialect. The Maharajas of Baghelkhand within the last century have, however, honoured the dialect which takes its name from their country by composing some books in it."[3]

"As in the case of *Awadhi*", Grierson observed that "both the *Devanagari* and the *Kaithi* character are used in writing *Bagheli*. So also we find the same varieties of spelling that we noticed in that dialect. The short *e* is often written and pronounced *ya* and the short *o*. *wa*. The long *e* is often written and pronounced *ya* and the long *o*. *wa*."[4]

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1 G. A. Grierson, Linguistic Survey of India, Vol VI, p. 171
2 *Ibid* p. 20
3 Jubbulpore District Gazetteer, pp. 82-83
4. G.A. Grierson op. cit., p. 20

According to 1961 Census, the speakers of Hindi were 11.45 lakhs or 89.92 per cent of the District population. The speakers of principal languages are given in the following table:—

Mother-tongue	Census Years 1901	1911	1921	1931	1941	1951	1961
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)	(8)
Hindi	666,063 (97.87)	728,483 (97.67)	724,402 (97.15)	754,861 (97.55)	..	976,693 (93.41)	1,145,446@ (89.92)
Marathi .. .	1,705 (0.23)	1,373 (0.18)	2,050 (0 27)	3,367 (0 44)	..	9,227 (0.88)	17,983 (1.43)
Gujarati ..	798 (0.12)	570 (0.08)	1,097 (0.15)	929 (0.12)	..	3,235 (0.30)	4,480 (0 35)
Punjabi	274 (0.04)	1,385 (0.19)	1,847 (0.25)	1,711 (0.22)	..	10,420 (1.00)	16,776 (1.32)
Sindhi	..	..	..	..	..	15,537 (1 49)	18.553 (1.46)
Urdu	..	.	.		..	12,820 (1 23)	35,062 (2.75)

Note—1 Urdu is included in Hindi for the decades between 1901 and 1931

2 Figures in brackets are percentages.

@. Persons having Hindi as mother-tongue (excluding others)

A sharp decline from 97.55 per cent of Hindi speakers in 1931 to 93.41 per cent in 1951 and to 89.92 per cent in 1961 may be attributed to the twin reasons of large increase of immigrant population having mother-tongue other than Hindi and the exclusion of Urdu speakers from Hindi, after 1931.

The languages other than Hindi are the mother-tongue of a small proportion of the District population. The Sindhi and Punjabi cover about 2.78 per cent of the total population, and are mainly spoken in urban areas. The Census of 1961. enumerated about 2.75 per cent Urdu speakers as against 1.23 per cent of the previous Census. Prior to this, Urdu was not enumerated as a separate language, but a dialect of Hindi and, as such, Urdu speakers were enumerated with the speakers of Hindi.

Amongst the tribal languages, *Gondi* is an important language from the point of view of Gond population in the adjoning tracts. The number of *Gondi*-speakers consistently declined during the past decades in this District, and formed only 0.02 per cent of the District population in 1951. The *Kols* have, however, abandoned their language and speak "*Bagheli* of their neighbours."[1]

RELIGION AND CASTE

Jabalpur is predominantly a Hindu district where Hindus constituted about 92.51 per cent of the District population in 1961. The remaining 7.49 per cent included a sizable number of Muslims (4.69 per cent). followed by Jains and Christians with 1.09 and 1.08 per cent, respectively. Over the last 60 years Muslims increased by 51.93 per cent, Jains by 125.32 per cent and Christians by 274.86 per cent. Hindus increased by 97.67 per cent during the same period. Formerly, Sikhs were not a numerous community in the District, but of late, especially during the decade of 1941—51, they increased by 180.52 per cent. In 1961, the Buddhists in the District were enumerated to be 1,325, of which there were 708 males and 617 females, The partition of the country in 1947 had had an adverse effect on the Muslim population which in fact decreased in 1951 by 15,819 or 23.55 per cent over 1941. The following table gives a picture of the various important religious communities in the District during the last 60 years, since 1901.

Census Year	Religion				
	Hindu	Sikh	Jain	Muslim	Christian
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)
1901	596,168	..	6,177	37,990	3,688
1911	599,121	629	6,233	41,339	6,800
1921	635,240	599	6,024	42,033	6,993
1931	697,355	772	6,792	47,614	7,697
1941	651,506	3,475	8,223	67,158	9,483
1951	964,409	9,748	10,023	51,339	9,790
1961	1,178,470	8,205	13,918	57,719	13,825

Note.—1 In 1901, 1921 and 1931 Hindus included Hindu Arya and Hindu Brahmo

2. In 1941 Christians included Anglo-Indians and others.

1. G. A. Grierson, op. cit., p. 171.

Hindus:—The caste hierarchy in the District may be classified into three broad divisions: the higher agricultural castes, higher artisan castes, and serving castes. The traditional Hindu beliefs and practices can broadly be grouped and termed as 'Sanatan Dharma'. They believe in monotheism and *Avatars* which are considered to be manifestations of God on earth. The principal Gods worshipped by them are Shri Ramchandra, Hanuman, Mahadeva or Shiva, Sri-Krishna, etc. Their religious books are the *Ramayan*, *Bhagawad-Gita* and the *Bhagawat*, which are widely read in every Hindu home.

As elsewhere in India, in Jabalpur also, caste as a segmentary division of the society is characterised by endogamy, social distance on the basis of ideas of ritual purity and pollution, hierarchical structure, functional specialization and economic and social inter-dependence of different castes. Brahman, Kshatriya and Vaishya, are the principal castes while the rest are covered under 'others'. The traditional values which used to be attached to the ritual purity and pollution, though considerably relaxed in the city inhabitants and sophisticated class, yet remain deeply entrenched among the common masses. The immigrant Sindhis and Punjabis brought their own caste-structure which follow the general Hindu pattern, although in respect of marriage, etc., considerable variation is witnessed.

Sarwaria (Saravuparin), Kanaujia (Kanyakubja) and Jijhotia are the principal subdivisions of Brahmans who are uncontroversially regarded as highest and are addressed as *Maharaj*. The former two take their names from the rivers Sarayu and Kanauj respectively. 'Jijhotia, however, is a local subdivision of Kanaujia subcaste belonging to Bundelkhand.' In the traditional social ranking, Sarwarias rank highest and used to take daughters from Kanaujias. The Jijhotias are ranked as lowest. However, superiority is a disputable point in between Kanaujias and Sarwarias. Several Maharashtrian Brahmans in the region owe their residence to the fact that the 'Northern Districts for a period were governed by the Maharashtrian Brahmans on behalf of the Peshwa of Poona, and were under the Bhonsla dynasty of Nagpur.'

Besides the Brahmans, Rajputs, Banias and Kayasthas are other higher castes. Rajputs are 'represented by the large number of septs several of them of pure blood. The chief septs are Raghuvansi, Bais, Bagri, Parihar, Gaur, Jaiswara, Chauhans and Chandel'. The Rajputs observe Brahmanical customs and traditions and are respected universally. Parihar Rajputs rank with the leading clans and intermarry with them.

The principal sub-divisions of Banias are Agarwal and Gahoi. Among others are Asthis, Kasarwanis, Kasaundhis and Umres and the Marwari Bania. The Banias are a traditional trading caste. The Agarwals who are numerically an important sub-division in the District are said to be immigrants from the Punjab[1] and the Gahois from Bundelkhand.

The Kayasthas who are also known in the District as 'lalas' are quite numerous in the District. It is an 'intelligent class' who held important posts under the Gond kings of Garha-Mandla. 'According to their own legend the first progenitor of Kayasthas was Chitragupta the recorder of good and evil activities of all beings.' The Kayasthas are divided into 12 sub-castes. They venerate the traditional Hindu dieties and worship 'Chitragupta the divine ancestor at wedding and at Diwali'. 'Twice a year they venerate pen and ink, the implements of their profession'. They are mostly in Government services.

Other Castes—Among the higher castes, Lodhis who are adept cultivators like Kurmis, were mostly associated with Patan Pargana of the District. Their principal sub-divisions are Mahadele, Kirwanah, Mahalodhi, Jarah, etc., of which the former two are predominant. They worship the Hindu Gods and Goddesses, and visit temples. Owing to Brahmanic influence, they used to wear *janeu* for which they are not particular now. Brahmans are still looked reverentially by them and are addressed as *Maharaj* and *Pandit ji*. The festivals of Akhti and Ram Navami the former in the month of Vaisakh and latter in Chaitra, are observed by them particularly. Polygamy finds a traditional social sanction, but it is rare. Divorce and widow-remarriage are generally looked down upon.

The principal sub-divisions of Kurmis who are excellent cultivators are Usrete, Chandrohi, Gahois and Parchaiyan. Usrete who are regarded higher in social ranking belong to Bundelkhand, and are also known as Havelia, for they lived in the rich level tract of Jabalpur. They worship Hindu Gods and Goddesses and celebrate all festivals, particularly, Akhti on Vaisakh *sudi tij* like Lodhis. Polygamy, divorce and widow-remarriage find social sanction. But the Brahmanic influence and economic consideration

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1 R. V. Russell and Hiralal, The Tribes and Castes of the Central Provinces, Vol. II, p. 136. However, Jabalpur Gazetteer states. "The Agarwals derive their name from the village Agroha in the United Provinces from which they have immigrated."

have restricted these customs in practice. Russell noted earlier that Chandnahes of Jabalpur sometimes used to 'kill pig under the palanquin of a newly married bride.'

Among other minor castes, Kachhis and Ahirs are important; the former noted for their excellence in garden crops and the latter as traditional cowherds. Now a large section of them work as agricultural labour apart from following their traditional occupations.

The last of the caste hierarchy in the District is the serving caste which covers Mehras, Gonds, Kols and other Scheduled Castes* and Tribes. In 1951 the Scheduled Castes constituted about 10.34 per cent which went down to 9.4 per cent in 1961. They largely inhabit the rural tract.

Chamars, the traditional leather workers, besides shoe-making, etc., are also engaged in cultivation. 'Mochis and Jingars are off-shoots of Chamars, but having risen in status claim Rajput origin'.

The Mehras in the District are mostly Kabirpanthi, and are forbidden to eat meat, to drink liquor and to worship idols. They resemble mostly Gonds and Kols in religious matters and rank lowest in social scale.

In the 'thirties, the fruits of the efforts of social and political reformers to break up the caste-system were visible in the returns of Census 1931, when a number of persons (699 males and 587 females) returned their castes as 'Nil' in the Jabalpur District. Although the movement was in its infancy there has been a 'nucleus definitely opposed to caste-distinction'. The factors of castes and races have definite effect on occupation, the age of marriage, the position of women, the attitude towards the birth of male and female children, and more indirectly labour, migration, etc. The increased facilities for better communication, education, wider circulation of newspapers and efforts of social and political reformers have led to the breakdown of caste-distinction to a great extent and left a mark

*The Scheduled Castes in Jabalpur are.—(1) Bahna or Bahana (2) Balahi or Balai (3) Basor, Burud, Bansor or Bansodi (4) Chamar, Chamari, Mochi, Nona, Rohidas, Ramnami, Satnami, Surajyabanshi or Surjyaramnami (5) Dom or Dumar (6) Ganda or Gandi (7) Khatik, Chikwa or Chikvi (8) Mang, Dankhni-Mang, Mang-Mahashi, Mang-Garudi, Madari, Garudi or Radhe-Mang (9) Mehtar or Bhangi (10) Sansi (11) Kori (12) Mahar or Mehra.

in a variety of ways. An increased familiarity with the rail and road travelling, in mixed company, has had very definite results even among the orthodox who could not preserve their exclusiveness in a public vehicle. The Census 1931 observed: "Until quite recently it was customary among the high-caste Hindus always to wash all bedding after a railway journey. This washing was ceremonial and not merely for purposes of cleanliness. Again food and water were not taken on train journey."[1] Now no such restriction is observed.

The liberal ideas which have swept the country during the last 20 or 30 years had their effect on Jabalpur District also. The more educated sections of the population are now more opposed to infant marriages. They favour widow remarriage, denounce *Pardah* system, observe less execlusiveness in castes, and encourage general relaxation in orthodoxy. The untouchables are being admitted to the schools in increasing numbers. Their awakening to their own rights was stimulated, not only by educated members of their own community and distinguished social reformers, but also by the Government which had abolished untouchability under Article 17 of the Constitution. The year 1955 witnessed the passing of the Untouchability (Offences) Act. But in practice, customs inherent with the castes still maintain a hold over the village community, and inter-marriage or inter-dining among various castes and sub-castes is still not favoured in the interior. However, in towns and more advanced rural areas this rigidity is not observed with the same intensity. Similarly, remarriage among Brahmans, Rajputs, Banias, Kayasthas, Sunars, etc., is met with the disapproval of the majority and more emphatically, of elderly people.

The rigidity in matters of taking water from the hands of lower caste has relaxed to a considerable extent. The Dhimars in northern districts continue in their time-honoured social position, from whom water may be taken without prejudice.

Tribes.—In 1931, the percentage of tribal population in the District was 24, but in 1941 it suffered a set back, and was of the order of 21·9 per cent. In 1961 the tribal population was 1,54,989 or about 12.16 per cent. There has been in the Jabalpur District, a gradual decline in the tribal population during the last 60 years. In 1931 the aboriginal population of the District was, in fact, almost the same as in 1891. A contributory cause for the fall in the per-

1. Census of India, 1931, C. P. and Berar, Pt. I, p. 352.

centage of population of tribals in the District was first, the migration of tribals to other places in search of lucrative work—as labourers in the coal mines. Grigson noted: "A few years back I found one village in Murwara Tahsil, from which there was a regular migration of men to work in the coal-mines of Chhindwara and the manganese mines of Nagpur District,"[1] Secondly, as observed by Sir Risley in the Census Report of 1901, the fall in number was owing to the process of gradual and insensible transformation of tribals into castes'. In Jabalpur the process of absorption has been going on for a long time.

Although Jabalpur is not a Scheduled Tribe area, the principal groups of tribes found are Kol, Gond and Baharia or Bhumia. According to available evidences the *inter se* gradation of social ranking places Gonds first, followed by Kols and Mehras.

There has been much controversy over the derivation of the word Gond. "General Cunningham considered that the name Gond probably came from Gauda......................... A Benares inscription relating to one of the Chedi kings of Tripura or Tewar (near Jubbulpore) states that he was of the Haihaya tribe, who lived on the borders of the Nerbudda in the district of Western Gauda in the Province of Malwa."[2] The Gond Kingdom was founded in Jabalpur in the 14th century,[3] with their capital at Garha. Sleeman stated regarding Rani Durgavati of Garha Mandla: "Of all the sovereigns of this dynasty, she lives most in the pages of history and in the grateful recollection of the people. She built the great reservoir which lies close to Jubbulpore and is called after her, Rani Talao or Queen's pond."[4]

The 'religious life of Gonds continues to be influenced considerably by animism, worshipping their tribal gods and spirits. But owing to the contacts with Hindus they have picked up a smattering of knowledge of Hindu Gods.' Their Hinduism is not of scriptures and religious text, but is a quaint mixture of animism and Hinduism . 'Theirs is a practical religion, manifested periodically in offerings and sacrifices to the Gods'. Their Pantheon includes the village gods, common in the region. Bura Deo, their great God, was probably at first the *saj* tree, but sometimes

1. W. V. Grigson, Aboriginal Problem in C. P. and Berar, p. 22.
2. R. V. Russell and Hiralal, Tribes and Castes of the C. P., Vol. III, p. 42.
3. *Ibid*, p. 45.
4. *Ibid*, p. 46.

Kol women.

A Gond woman thrashing corn.

the whole collection of gods. A number of Hindu deities have now been admitted to the Gond Pantheon, *viz*., Ramchandra, Hanuman, Shanker etc. Besides, Dulha Deo, Hardol, etc., are also worshipped. In recent years, owing to the welfare activities of the Government and the Vanwasi Seva Mandal, the tribal population of the District started receiving education besides introducing social reforms including the giving up of liquor.

The principal tribe of Munda or Kolarian family is Kol. The Kols are accustomed to moving about in search of work, and hence they are scattered all over the State. They, however, are found in large numbers in the Jabalpur District owing to the proximity of Rewa State. Dr. Vidyarthi[1] observes that Kols of Jabalpur accept Rewa as their native land. They largely inhabit Murwara and Sihora tahsils of the District. Their important sub-castes are Rautia and Rautele. 'Rautias consider themselves to be superior to Rauteles and practise hypergamy with them. They eat with Rauteles at wedding feasts only and not on any other occasion. The other divisions are Thakuria, Kagwaria and Dashera. Kols are sometimes confounded with Bharias who may be an off-shoot of Bhar tribe. In Jabalpur the Kols take food from Kurmis, Dhimars and Ahirs.

Further Dr. Vidyarthi[2] states that the Kols have taken to many trades, owing to which their living condition is also improving. As labourers they are often employed for carrying *dolis* or palanquins. Now one finds Kol males and females covering their persons more completely than what the earlier accounts depict.

The Kols worship the tiger as Baghaut Baba. The cult of tiger worship is peculiar to Kols, belonging to Kathotia sept. According to one account: 'If a tiger is killed within the limits of his village a Kathotia Kol will throw all his earthen pots as a sign of mourning for a relative, have his head shaved and feed a few men of his sept.' Fulmati and Raksel are also gods worshipped by Kols.

The forest tribe of Bharia is also known as Bhumia or priest of the lower castes and village gods. The Bharias prefer the designation of Bhumia as being more respectable. Bharias, most likely belong to the Bhar tribe of eastern U. P. "According to tradition Raja Karna Deva, a former king of Dahal (classical name of

1. *Vanyajati*, Vol. VII, 1960, pp. 50—53
2. *Ibid*.

Jubbulpore) was a Bhar, and it may be that the immigration of Bharias into Jubbulpore dates from his period, which is taken as 1040 to 1080 A. D."[1].

The Bharias call themselves Hindus and worship the village deities of the locality. Their principal deity is Bhimsen. They also venerate Bagheshwar the Tiger-god, and believe that no tiger shall eat a Bharia. 'The tribe is divided into a number of totemic clans which are strictly exogamous.' Adult marriage is the rule. The system of bride-price is prevalent among them Marriage by service is also practised and widow-marriage allowed.

Muslim.—As censused in 1961, the second largest community was Muslims with 57,719 persons or 4.69 per cent of the District population. It is largely an urban community, roughly more than two-thirds of whom live in urban areas, city being the main centre Till 1941 the growth of Muslims was steady, but the partition and consequent migration in 1947 reflected a decline in their population in 1951 Census when they constituted only about 5 per cent of the District population against 7.37 in 1941.

As elsewhere, the main sects among Muslims are Shia and Sunni, majority belonging to the latter. Muharram is sacred for the martyrdom of Hussain and his family, the sons of Ali by Fatimah, daughter of the Prophet Muhammad The *tazias* of the Muharram is a representation of the tomb of Hussain. The Shias reckon Ali as the immediate successor of Muhammad and disallow the succession of the three companions of Muhammad. Russell observed that the 'religious observance of the Muslims presented a curious mixture of Hindu and Mohammadan rites."[2] Although it was unusual to find the returns of certain number of Rajputs and other people of high castes professing Islam, yet those recorded in 1931 Census came from Jabalpur.[3] The Muslims profess Islam—means resignation, which implies submission to the will of Allah. Islam postulates only one God, Allah. As elsewhere, *Kalima* or creed, *Sula* or the five daily prayers, *Roza* or 30 days' fast of Ramzan, *Zakat* or the legal alms, and *Hajj* or a pilgrimage to Mecca are the five standard religious observances of Muslims They regard Maulana Ahmed Raza Khan of Bareilly as their religious head, while his *Khalifa* Maulana Burhan-ul Haq is the local religious head.

1 R V Russell and Hiralal, op. cit., Vol. II p. 243.
2. *Ibid*, Vol I, p. 249.
3. Census of India 1931, C. P. and Berar, Pt. I, p. 331.

The Muhammadans are divided into four classes, *viz.*, Saiyad, Sheikh, Mughal and Pathan. However, there are a number of occupational groups among them, *viz.*, Bahnas or cotton-cleaners; Julahas, weavers; Kacheras, glass bangle-makers; Kunjras, green-grocers, Kasais, butchers; and Rangrez, dyers. Julhas are quite numerous in the District.

Jains.—The third largest group is that of Jains who constitute about 1.09 per cent of the District population according to 1961 Census. During the last 60 years, the Jains increased by about 125 per cent. It is an important community in Jabalpur. Digambaras are most numerous in the District, while Swetambaras are also there. The Digambaras, owing to the fact that Mahavira wore no clothes, worship skyclad image of Tirthankars. The most numerous sub-caste of Jains in the District is that of Parwars who almost entirely belong to Jabalpur and Narbudda Division, observes Russell[1], and it is said that they migrated from Rajputana. The Samaiya or Channagri sections differ, however, from the rest of Jains as regards the image worship. They, however, enshrine and worship the sacred books of Jains in their temples.

The Jains are a well-to-do community mainly engaged in trade and commerce. They also acquired large number of villages owing to the improvidence of Dangi land-owners as observed in 1931 Census report.[2] They had originally no real god, but the Jina or victor who preached and declared the way of salvation which he had found'. But this doctrine came under defiance and hence gradually a 'succession of mythical predecessors of the Prophet was brought into existence'. The Jains have 'twenty-four Tirthankars, who similarly taught their religion'. The aim of Jainism is to 'escape from the endless rounds of successive existence known as *Samsara* through the extinction of the *Karman* or sum of actions'. The soul, finally 'emancipated, reaches a heaven and there continues for ever a separate intellectual existence and is not absorbed into *Nirvana* or a state of blessed nothingness.'

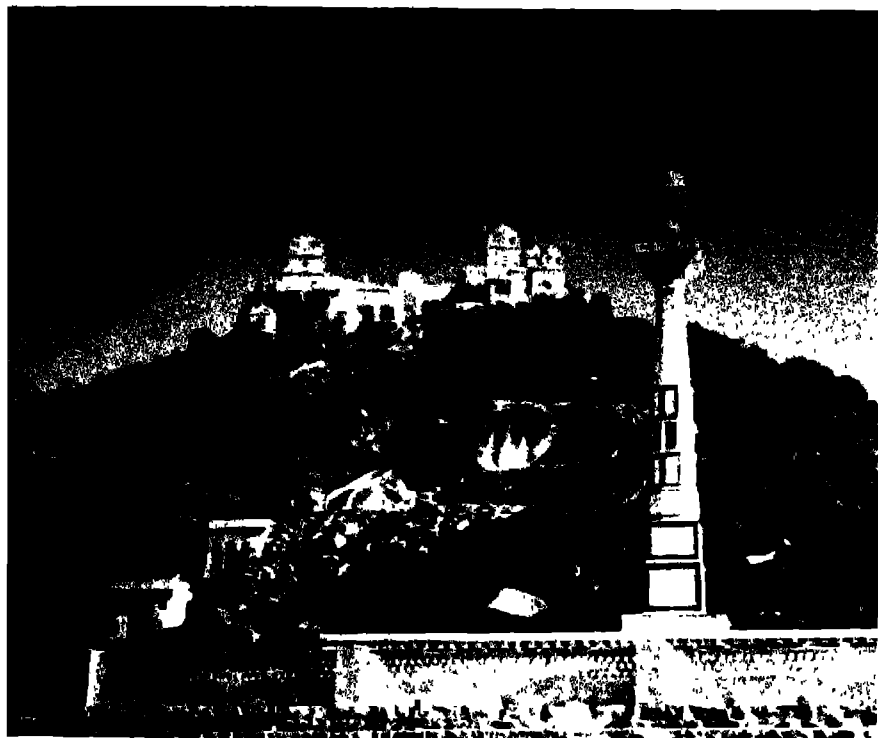
The principal festivals of Jains are Mahavir Jayanti, celebrated in March or April for one day, and Paryushan Parva in the month of August or September, celebrated for 10 days. This festival marks the beginning of a new account year for them. Ashtanhika Parva, is observed thrice a year once in March or April and then in June or July and in October or November. Eight days' fast is observed on the occasion.

1. R. V. Russell and Hiralal, op. cit., Vol. II, pp. 157--160.
2. Census of India, 1931, C. P. and Berar, Pt. I, p. 335.

Usually, at the opening of a new temple the *rath* or a chariot festival ceremony (Gajrath Mahotsava) is performed. Besides religious merit, it brings hereditary titles of 'Singhai', 'Seth', etc., to the performer. The characteristic feature of this function is that, the donor alongwith the image of the Tirthankars and the members of his family is driven in a huge wooden car drawn by elephants. The procession headed by the sacred car moves in triumph round the temple or pavilion erected for the ceremony.

After the turn of the century, in 1901 Gajrath Pratishtha Mahotsav was observed in Sihora and the title of 'Seth' was conferred on Laxmi Chandra. Later, Gajrath Mahotsava was again celebrated in 1918 at Sihora by Rampal Dal Chandra Jain who got the title of 'Singhai'; in 1919 at Pisanhari-ki-Marhiya by Rati Bai, widow of Saddulal Duli Chandra Jain, who got the title of 'Singhai' and in 1920 at Pisanhari-ki-Marhiya, by Jamuna Bai, widow of Bhaiya lal Danji, getting the title of 'Singhai'. Recently, Dhanpatlal Mool-Chandra Jain observed a Gajrath Mahotsava in 1958, and erected a temple at Pisanhari-ki-Marhiya. He got the title of 'Singhai'. The ascetics are also looked upon reverentially by Jains and whenever some ascetic visits, there are great religious activities. The principal ascetics who influenced the Jain community in the District were Shanti Sagar Maharaj who came in early 'thirties, Surya Sagar Maharaj in mid-'twenties and again in mid-'thirties. Vimal Sagar Maharaj in late-'forties and Ganesh Prasadji Varnee in 1941. He also founded a *Gurukul* at Jabalpur. For the defence of Indian National Army personnel Varneeji donated his only *dupatta* which was auctioned for Rs. 3000.

Christians.—In 1961 the Christians numbered 13,825. Jabalpur city has been an important centre of this community since the advent of the British in this region. The District in fact owes its rich educational heritage to the early Missionary enterprise. The Church Mission Society was the first to commence work in 1857. Later in 1885, St. Luke's Mission Church was also built. A number of institutions are still being run by the Missionaries. Their important festivals are Easter Day and Christmas. On the Christmas-eve, in the month of December, services are held in the mid-night in the churches.

Sikhs.—The Sikhs constituted about 0.64 per cent of the District population in 1961. Baba Nanak was the founder of this religion and he was followed by 'nine *Gurus*, the last being Govind Singh, who died in 1708'. 'He gave them the outward signs of their faith.' The distinguishing marks 'are five *Kakkas* or K's, *viz.*, *Kes*, *Kachh*, *Kasa*

Pisanhari-kl-Madia, Jabalpur

Bajna Math, Jabalpur

(*Kara*), *Khanda* (*Kirpan*) and *Kanga*.' The other rules of conduct are prayers and recitation of passages of the *Granth*, reverence to cow, abstention from worship of saints and idols, and worship of one God.

Shrines and Village Gods.—The cult of village gods is one of the most ancient forms of popular religion in India. Its value as a powerful unifying factor of village life cannot be disputed. This observation is equally tenable if we take Jabalpur District as an isolated case.

The principal village deities worshipped in the District are Khermai (Kherdai) for the general welfare and protection against the disease, especially cholera, Burhi Sardamata for the prevention of disease and general welfare of the villagers, Hardol Lal who is specially worshipped at the time of marriage. Shankerji, Mahadevji and Bura Deo for general welfare, etc. A number of stone-pieces on an earthen platform called *kur* are also worshipped for welfare as the *Guru* of the village. Bagh Deo and Mithuwa Baba are worshipped for the welfare of the cattle. Other deities are Midwaiya Deo, god of field-boundaries, Ghatoiya Deo, the favourite of the brides who worship this godling while going to husbands' house for the first time, Nag Deo, another god worshipped on the occasion of Nag-Panchmi and Bhainsasur or bufflow god, worshipped before starting agricultural operations.

A saint known as 'Thanthanpal' exercised great influence on the religious life of the District. He resided in the village Jamunia and was regarded as a *Siddha* by the villagers. He was reverentially, known as Dadaji. People used to visit the village for his *darshan*. *Satynarain-ki-Katha* has great popularity. Its significance to the lower section is that it is a mark of Hinduism which helps their identification with other Hindu castes, and the people have great faith in its efficacy to bring their cherished desires to fulfilment.

New Religious Leaders and Movements.—Although there has not been much of sectarianism in Jabalpur, yet the two reforming sects of Hinduism, *viz.*, Arya Samaj and Kabir-panth—the former associated with Shri Dayanand Saraswati, a well-known social and religious reformer (1824-1883)[1], and the latter with the name of Kabir the propounder of the sect (A.D. 1440-1518)[2]— gained considerable

1. R. V. Russell and Hiralal, op. cit., Vol. I, pp. 201—202.
2. *Ibid*, p. 232. (This date is given by Bishop Westcott, however, Crooke states A. D. 1488—1512).

following (mostly Chamar) in the District. The latter flourished in the initial decades of the present century, while the former developed intensively in the latter half of the last century. For the first time a branch of the Arya Samaj, affiliated to the Arya Pratinidhi Sabha, Nagpur, came into being at Gorakhpur in 1938 to propagate the Vedic religion. This movement endeavours to lift the society from the depths of orthodoxy of caste and creed, untouchability and other religious and social evils through the reconversion of outcastes and inter-caste marriage, besides helping the destitutes, orphans, and the like. An Arya Samaj for females is also functioning at Gorakhpur for the promotion of the cause of Vedic religion among the women-folk of the District. Two important festivals which are celebrated with great enthusiasm by the Arya Samajis are Rishi Bodh Divas (Shivaratri) and Rishi Nirvan Divas.

Besides these, Janmashtami is an important festival when ascetics and Pandits are invited to impart and propagate the ideals of the Samaj.

Kumar Sabha and Bal Sabha are two important organizations of the Samaj which propagate the Vedic religion among the students of the schools and colleges. The Samaj also runs an Arya Kanya Pathshala which came into being in 1958. In 1958 it was shifted to its own premises. The other branches are at Ganjipura, Gun-Carriage Factory, and Khamaria. The Samaj also performs *shuddhi* (change of religion) and receives the outcasts and persons of other castes or class into the fold of Hinduism. They encourage inter-caste marriage and also perform it.

The other noticeable religious movements which had influenced the District were Kabir Panth and Satnami movement. Westcott observed that "Kabir Panth exists as a protest against the religious exclusiveness of the twice-born caste. As a natural result few but *Sudras*, whose case it champions, have associated themselves with the movement."[1] Both started with the fundamental ideals of equality for all men, abolition of castes and worship of one Supreme God who required no idols or temples and so, no Brahman. But the old influences made themselves felt later on, and both the sects recognized castes, and in the Census of 1911, were returned under Brahmanic Hindus

The Kabirpanthi Mehras perform the *chouka* at the time of initiation of a person and a *kanthi* or small garland of beads is tied round his neck *Mantras* or sacred verses are whispered in his ears. The

1. Jubbulpore District Gazetteer, p. 94.

ceremony is repeated at the time of death with the exception of the sacred verses.

SOCIAL LIFE

Property and Inheritance

Among the principal communities of the District, *viz.*, the Hindus and Muslims, the ordinary Hindu and Muslim Laws govern the descent and inheritance of property which is generally in father's line. Wills are not drawn commonly. There are no traces of matrilineal descent among the Hindus. But the Hindu Law of Inheritance (Amendment Act) of 1929 recongnized such females as the son's, daughter, daughter's daughter, sister and sister's daughter as heirs after the father's father, if it is not contrary to special family or local customs having the force of law. The women's interest in property was recognized some time later by Hindu Women's Right to Property Act of 1937. Under the Act, a widow has the same interest in property as her husband had himself. These Acts tremendously influenced the disintegration of the joint family of Hindus. Now both these Acts are repealed by the Hindu Succession Act of 1956.

The Muslims follow Islamic law in the matter. "The property of a deceased Muslim is applicable in the first place to the payment of his funeral expenses; secondly, to the discharge of his debts; and thirdly, to the payment of legacies upto one-third of the residue. If the legacies exceed this amount they are proportionately reduced. The remainder of his property is distributed by complicated system of shares to those of the deceased's relatives who rank as sharers and residuaries, legacies to any of them in excess of their share being void. The consequence of this law is that most Muslims die intestate."[1]

The disputes arising out of the distribution of deceased father's property are generally referred to Kazi for arbitration and the award is usually acceptable to all concerned. In case the deceased has divorced his wife earlier, or has separated from her without paying alimony or *mehr*, she can claim it.

"The succession among Kols", observed Russell, "passes to sons only. Failing these, the property goes to the father or brother if any. At partition the eldest son as a rule gets a slightly larger share

1. R. V. Russell and Hiralal, op. cit., Vol. I, p. 258.

than other sons...The daughters get no share in the inheritance."[1] The sons also share the bride-price fetched for the sister's marriage but since the Kols in the District are more or less hinduized, the rule does not operate with such rigidity.

Joint Family.—The family in this region is patrilineal. It is common for a man to live with his wife and children and some lineally related dependant or dependants in the same household. According to sample of the households studied in 1951 Census, majority of the households, about 51.05 per cent, were constituted of 3 members or less. The households with 4 to 6 members each similarly accounted for nearly 36.77 per cent; with 7 to 9 members for 9.41 per cent and those with 10 members and above, only 2.77 per cent of the total households. It can safely be concluded therefore, that the traditional joint-family is on the decline. This fact is further confirmed by the survey conducted by the Census Organisation in 1961-62, in Jaitpuri village of this District, which reveals that about 66 per cent of the households have families of the 'Simple type', 17 per cent 'Intermediate type', and a little more than 10 per cent 'Joint type'. The 'Intermediate' families represent the transition from 'Joint' to the 'Simple' family. The Kols with 81 per cent 'Simple households' is the prima-facie suggestion of a Kol's preference for a 'Simple family unit' while among the Gonds only 56 per cent live in 'Simple households'.

Marriage and Morals

Monogamy is generally practised in this region although ploygamy is also resorted to when a woman fails to beget a male heir to the family. Polyandry in any form is not practised in this region. A landmark in the history of social reforms was the passing of Hindu Marriage Act, 1955, which prohibited polygamy. For the purposes of the Act, Sikhs and Jains are also covered by the Act. The Act also provides for divorce under certain circumstances and conditions.

Marriage among Hindus is regarded as sacramental and is governed by rigid laws Customarily the husband enjoys a superior status over his wife. Among the lower sections the wife treats him as her ***Dhani*** or Lord, while the latter refers to his wife, as ***Mal*** or property. Patrilocal residence is the rule. The institution of ***Lamsena*** among Gonds, in which the husband comes and lives in his wife's village to serve, is the only exception to it. Islam recognizes

1. *Ibid,* Vol. III, p. 515.

polygamy and a man can take as many as four wives. But the *Koran* appears to restrict polygamy, more on economic than on ethical grounds. In practice also, polygamy among Muslims is infrequent because it is not within most people's reach. Russell observes that "A feeling in favour of legal prohibition of polygamy is growing among the educated Muhammadans"[1] of this region.

As stated earlier, caste as a segmentary division of society is largely endogamous in character. Traditionally marriage alliances within the confines of the castes remain to be an ideal in the District though exceptions are there. *Sagotra* and *sapinda* marriages are traditionally prohibited. Both parallel and cross cousins are regarded as brothers and sisters, and, as such, marriage among them is prohibited.

Though marriage alliances are favoured within the confines of endogamous sections, yet inter-sectional marriages are also performed. Formerly, Kanaujias practised hypergamy with Sarwarias, but now the other way round calls for no stern action on the part of the latter. As per local accounts such persons are called Shobhapuri Kanyakubja. Among the Muslims, marriage is traditionally prohibited to 'ordinary near relatives' and between Sunnis and Shias, but not between the first cousins. Most of the 'sub-castes of Banias have an elaborate system of exogamy'. Marriage 'within five or more degrees of relationship is avoided'. The Jain sub-caste of Parwars in Jabalpur forbids traditionally the marriage in their own *gotra* and *mul* of their mother or any of the grand or great-grandmother.

Marriage among Chamars, Kurmis and Lodhis is prohibited traditionally between members of the same section and between first cousins. But the Chandnahe Kurmis of Jabalpur 'permit the wedding of a brother's daughter to sister's son.' Commonly, 'Kurmis forbid a man to marry his wife's sister during her lifetime'. Kirwanahs and Mahadele Lodhis do not, however, marry commonly from among other sub-divisions

Among the tribal groups of Gonds and Kols, the former prohibits a man to 'marry in his own sept' who are *bhaiband* 'nor in one which worship the same number of gods'. 'The marriage of first cousins is considered especially suitable'. Similarly, marriage within the sept is prohibited among the Kols.

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1. *Ibid*, Vol. I, p. 252.

Marriage Customs and Rituals including Dowry.—Marriage is still largely negotiated by the parents. Previously family was an important consideration in the selection of a spouse but now more weight is given by educated sections of the society to the merits of the spouse. People, no doubt, still attach importance to family, but mainly to ascertain that the family is not of quarrelsome disposition or suffering from hereditary family disease.

Though marital age has advanced considerably in recent years, and even in lower castes marriage is preferred in the age of adolescense yet child marriage is also frequent in the interior parts. The educated people of higher caste prefer adult marriage.

The principal rites and rituals involved in the consummation of a Hindu marriage start with *sagai* or betrothal, the essential preliminary to a marriage. *Lagan-patrika* or *tilak* declares the date of the marriage. On the appointed day the main ceremony begins with *mandapa-chhadan* (preparing the marriage pavilion), followed by *matrika-pujan* or the worship of celestial Mother who is supposed to confer *sobhagya* or long marital life.

The marriage party, *barat*, consisting of bridegroom, friends and relations, etc., arrives on the appointed day at the girl's house and is received with great courtesy and honour. The party is lodged at some suitable well decorated place known as *janwasa*. *Dwarpuja* or *dwarchar* or *darwaja* is the first ceremony at which the bridegroom enters the bride's house In some communities garlands are also exchanged by the boy and the girl. Among the *Sarayuparis* the garlands are exchanged under the *mandap* after *bhanwar*, whereas among the Kanyakubjas, only the girl puts the garland around the neck of the bridegroom at *darwaja*. This is followed by the main marriage ceremony called *kanyadan* and *saptapadi*, *bhanwar* or *pheras*. The *havan* is performed and the couple go round the *madawa* seven times. The *mantras* are recited during the entire ceremony by the priest, usually a Brahman Oaths are also administered in some castes to the bride and the bridegroom to bind them to an ideal marital behaviour. *Bela* marks the completion of the marriage and the *barat* along with the bride returns to the bridegroom's place.

Due to the spread of education the rituals and ceremonies connected with a marriage have undergone some changes, mainly in the direction of simplification, during the last 50 years. It is still unusual to find instances of inter-marriage between jijhotias, Kanyakubjas and Sarayuparis. Among the Gonds and Kols matches are

normally arranged by the parents and a bride-price is paid; yet girls are free to exercise initiative. The most distinctive feature of a Gond marriage is that the procession usually starts from the bride's house and the wedding is held at that of the bridegroom's in contradistinction of Hindu practice. It is supposed that this is a survival of the custom of marriage by capture'. Although there were no proper marriage rites necessary for the culmination of marriage, yet due to contact with civilized Hindu population, gradually the 'Hindu customs are being adopted and the rubbing of the powdered turmeric and water on the bodies of the bride and bridegroom is generally essential for a proper marriage'. The marriage ceremony among Kols is very simple. The bridegroom simply smears 'vermilion on the bride's forehead', after which the water is sprinkled over their heads. The Kols of Jabalpur have now adopted the regular Hindu ceremony.

Muslim Marriage.—Among the Muslims, no 'specific religious ceremony is appointed, nor are any rites essential for the contraction of a valid marriage'. However, whatever rites were prevalent in the District, they are largely the projection of what is prevalent in the region. The marriage is mostly negotiated by the parents, and a ceremony of the betrothal known as *magni* is performed in advance of marriage. The principal ceremony is called *nikah*. As a rule Kazi performs the ceremony. In Islam marriage is a contract. The Kazi and two witnesses disclose the amount of *mehr* and obtain the consent of the girl. In Jabalpur the lowest amount was Rs. 35 according to a local account. Russell observes: "Several Hindu ceremonies are also included, such as anointing of the bride and bridegroom with oil, and turmeric...... at least among the lower classes."[1] Another important rite is the 'rubbing of the hands and feat of the bridegroom with *mehendi* or red henna'. The last important rite is normally known as *rukhsat* which marks the completion of the marriage.

Dowry.—The dowry system is widely prevalent among Hindus in some or the other form. Generally in the higher castes cash settlement is made privately and the same is made over on the occasion of *lagun*, *darwaja*, and *bebi*. The major part of dowry is paid on *lagun*. Among the Gonds, Kols and Chamars, on the contrary, the practice of paying a bride-price is prevalent. Civil marriage is rarely resorted to. The Marriage Officer recorded that after the enactment of Special Marriage Act 1954, till October 1963, 98 marriages were solemnized in the District.

1. *Ibid*, Vol. I, p. 252.

Divorce.—Divorce and widow marriage is generally permitted in the lower castes. Among the Kols if the divorce is by mutual consent, 'the husband must give his wife a pair of loin-cloth and provisions for six months'. Gonds permit divorce and widow remarriage freely. As a rule it is considered suitable that she should marry her deceased husband's younger brother. Among the Chamars 'widows commonly remarry, and may take for their second husband anybody they please, except their own relatives and their late husband's elder brother'.

However, among the higher castes, divorce and widow remarriage is generally looked down upon. Among the Muslims, divorce is permitted and can be 'materialised by merely repeating the prescribed sentences'. Similarly, there is no restriction over widow remarriage, yet it appears that Hindu rule on the subject has considerable influence in restricting the same.

Rituals at Birth—The traditional rituals associated with child-birth are a blend of religious superstition with the hygienic and medical treatment of the mother and child. Among the higher castes 'naming ceremony' is usually performed on the sixth day and the rejoicing for the birth on the 12th day called *dasuthan* (*barsa*). The infants among Chamars are named on the sixth day or, sometimes, 12th day, after birth. Among the Gonds, on some day between the fifth and 12th after birth, the mother is 'purified' and the child named. Among the Muslims, on the birth of a child *azan* or summons to prayer is uttered aloud in his right ear, and the *takbir* in his left. *Ukika* (*hakika*) ceremony is performed either on the seventh, 14th or 21st day of birth, when the head of the child is shaved. Two goats are sacrificed for a son and one for girl.

Rituals at Death—The dead are usually cremated among the Hindus and are buried among the Muslims and Christians. The ashes and bones are collected by the son on the third day and are usually immersed in a sacred river or any stream. The *shuddhi* is performed on the 10th day and *terahi* on the 13th day among the Hindus. Among the Muslims, 'feasts are given on the 40th day (*Chaharrum*) and at the expiration of four, six and nine months, and one year from the date of death'.

Among the Jain sub-caste of Parwar 'the corpse is sometimes placed, sitting in a car to be taken to the cremation ground, but often laid on a bier in ordinary manner'. Jains do not shave their heads 'in token of the mourning nor do they offer sacrificial cakes to the dead'.

The dead among Gonds and Kols are usually buried and the 'introduction of cremation may be ascribed to Hindu influence'. The mourning is 'observed for three days, after which a feast is given.

Economic Dependence of Women.—According to 1951 Census about 10.01 per cent of the female population were 'self-supporting', 22.55 per cent, 'earning dependants' and the rest 67.44 per cent were 'non-earning dependents'. Taking the agricultural sector alone, the proportion of economically active female population was 24.78 per cent, whereas, their counterparts in the non-agricultural sector were recorded to be 7.79 per cent only. This establishes the fact that women of agricultural class are economically more active than their counterparts in the other sector. The womenfolk of the District have been mainly dependent on the menfolk, except for the lower caste, in which considerable number of women earn their living. The spread of education has, however, enabled a small proportion of women of the higher castes to earn their living. Thus, it appears that the position of women has advanced to some extent with the abolition of *pardah* and the spread of education.

Prostitution and Traffic in Women.—Owing to the promulgation of Suppression of Immoral Traffic in Women and Girls Act 1956, and other social reforms, the evil of prostitution has been decreasing outwardly, but the consensus of opinion in this respect is that it is going underground. There were 126 prostitutes in Jabalpur city and Katni town in the year 1962. The cases registered under the Act in 1958 were 19, but only 7 in 1959.

Gambling.—It was customary to gamble openly at the time of Diwali festival to which people attributed the prospects of the coming year; but, of late, the customary gambling has outwardly decreased because of the legal restrictions. Although the number of offences registered under the Gambling Act is no indication as to what extent the habit is prevalent among the people of the District, yet is gives a fair idea about the trend of the same. In 1950 about 649 offences were registered under this Act. During the 11 years' period thereafter the highest number of cases was registered in 1957, *i.e.*, 1172, while by the year 1961 it had declined to 359. Presently, indirect gambling in clubs and higher society among the educated classes is becoming a fashion.

Drinking.—To curb the evil of drinking in the Central Provinces the government accepted the policy of immediate and total prohibition by enacting Prohibition Act 1938. In the first instance the industrial town of Katni was covered in 1938. In later years, various other

measures were adopted, such as organisation of four Thrift and Better Living Societies in 1939, propaganda through social education and Tribal Welfare Department, etc. The habit of drinking is still prevalent in the District. As an experimental measure, the scheme of prohibition by issuing permits to addicts was introduced in Katni—Murwara tahsil of Jabalpur District with effect from 1st February 1953.[1] The offences registered by the Police Department under the Prohibition Act increased from 89 in 1950 to 358 in 1957, after a drop in 1952 to 130, and in 1959 to 220. It again swelled to 428 in 1960 and to 536 in 1961.

Home Life

Dwellings—Of the total 273,039 occupied houses in the District in 1961, nearly 175,604 were in rural areas and the rest of 97,435 in urban areas, giving an average of 4.56 and 4.85 persons per house, respectively. On an average there were 70 houses to a square mile in the District.

As regards the arrangements of the dwellings the distinguishing feature of Jabalpur is that normally villages are arranged on a '*Tola* System' (Sector). The *tolas* are connected with bye-roads from the *gothan* or assembling place of the village heards They are not formed on caste or class basis. The arrangement of houses in the village is not uniform. Some are lineally fashioned, with rows of houses arranged on both sides of the only street which is relatively more wide and clean, while others are built in a scattered fashion A number of bye-lanes are also found on each side of the road which leads to different sectors of the village. The higher castes dwell slightly away from the rest of the classes The direction of domiciles is usually from east to west. Usually, the Chamars are found to be located at the rear end of the village

The houses in most of the villages of the District have one-covered front verandah, where people sit, which is also used for sleeping. This is locally known as *parchhi*. Husking implements, etc., are usually kept in the front room called *chhapri* Behind this the inner room, which is known as *manchota*, is used for keeping large grain bins-*kothi* and family hearth, etc. People also sleep here in winter. The room remains generally dark as there are no windows. The store-room known as *kotha* is used for storing grains, etc. Cattle-shed is generally at one side of the *angan*, which is locally known as *sar*. Sometimes a kitchen-garden is also developed on the open space around the house.

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1. Excise Administration Report, 1953, p. 4.

The houses are generally built on a rectangular plan and the plinth of houses is not very high—about 2' from the ground level The walls are made of mud, mixed with kodo-chaff, and are plastered with a kind of earth called *chini-mitti*. The floor is made of beaten earth which is finally plastered with a thick layer of cow-dung.

The majority of houses are of four slope type. The front and the back slopes are called *palani*, whereas the side-slopes are known as *konia*. Fire-baked tiles, *khapra*, are used to cover the roof. They are of quadrangular type; two sides are slightly raised to hold it firmly on the top Ventilation is generally absent in the houses. However, sometimes two circular holes may be found in the houses for this purpose. The material used for the construction of the houses is all locally obtained and generally built by their own labour. The wood-work is generally done by the village carpenter.

Furniture and Decoration.—Generally, there is no furniture in a villager's house, but a few may have wooden bench, chairs, cots, stools, etc., in a decayed condition In the urban areas well furnished houses may be seen. Except for coloured figures of male or female at the door steps, and floral border designs on the walls, there remains complete absence of any other decoration. In some village houses one finds *rangoli* designs on the floor.

Dress and Ornaments—The dress of an average villager remains very simple and scanty Usually a man's dress is confined to a waist-cloth (mill-made) which is locally known as *dhoti*. The length of a *dhoti* is usually about 9 to 10 cubits. The upper garments of a villager are locally known as *bandi* and *pheta*. *Bandi* is a kind of light-fitted, half-sleeved waist-coat. Sometimes, they also put on a jacket called *lalot* (ordinary waist-coat) over it. The Patel or Patwari of a village may be seen wearing 'Gandhi cap', but the majority of the villagers use the traditional head-gear called *pheta*, (a kind of turban) A noticeable feature in the upper garments of a villager is that a piece of cloth, known as *saphi*, dangles around the neck region.

The regular female attire usually consists of a coloured sari—a long piece of mill-made cloth, about 16 cubits in length and 2½ cubits in breadth. Sometimes it is bordered about 1½" to 2" wide on both the ends. It is worn slightly above the ankle with a very short *kachha*. The loose end of the sari is draped round the back, concealing the *kachha* and then over the shoulders, to wrap the upper garment of the body. The upper garment is usually called *bandi* which is an ordinary blouse having an inner lining of white cloth. It also contains one or two side pockets for keeping money, etc.

The European dress has become widely popular among the City's educated menfolk. Shirts and trousers in the summer and suits in the winter are the favourite dress of the sophisticated class. The Sari is the common wear of the women-folk both in the urban as well as rural areas The *salwar* and *kamiz* are the traditional wear of Punjabi women. It is also popular among the teenaged girls of all communities in the urban areas. *Pyjama* instead of *salwar* is a favourite of Sindhi women.

Most of the villagers in the District wear ordinary locally made shoes commonly called *panhi*. The womenfolk of the villages usually do not use any footwear and they prefer to go out without it At times in marriages they may use *juta* of red colour.

The ornaments of men are *huki*, a small gold or silver ear-ring of a circular pattern; *utrana*, a crescent-shaped ring of gold worn in the ear by piercing a hole through the fold of the helix (usually worn in one ear); and *chura*, a solid silver wristlet which is generally worn by the well-to-do in the village. Of the ornaments worn around the neck by women, *chura* and *sutri* are quite common—the former is a bead-necklace while the latter is of solid silver resembling *hansli*. Yet another common necklace, locally known as *howal (hamel)*, is made of very old one-rupee coins strung together. The usual ornaments around the arms are *bohonta*, a silver armlet worn around the forearm; *chorua*, a thick waist bangle, usually of silver or brass; and *churi*, an ordinary glass bangle. *Todhor* is a bangle worn near the ankle region. *Khutia* is the nose-stud, circular in design and is either made of gold or brass. The ladies in the village also wear *tarkulia* an ear-stud with a pair of silver chains. Its diameter is about 1″ to 1½″. *Mundri* is the toe-ring usually made of silver or brass.

Food—The staple diet of the villagers is *kodo-ka-bhat*. But wheat forms the staple diet in some areas of the District. Any deficiency in this is generally compensated by maize gruel or *pej*, which is usually consumed after the rainy season. Usually the meals are taken three times a day. The morning meal locally known as *kalewa*, is virtually a heavy breakfast taken by the villagers before they go out for work. It is a two-course meal consisting of bread of wheat and *dal*, a liquid preparation of pulses. The mid-day meal is known as *roti khana* (by the name of bread). This is a three-course meal consisting of *pej* (kodo or kutki-gruel) or *kodo-ka-bhat*, *dal* and vegetable curry *Roti* (bread) is occasionally taken instead of *kodo-ka bhat*. Well-to-do people in the District also take along with it *chatni* and curry. The mid-day

meal is usually taken at the fields, at about 12 noon. The evening meal (supper) which is locally called *beyari* is generally taken late in the night.

The most commonly used pulses in the District are arhar and urd. However, masur and batra are occasionally taken at some places and regularly at others. Spices are used in all the vegetable or pulse preparations. Commonly used condiments and spices are turmeric, red-peper, coriander, common salt, cumin, clove, etc. Potatoes, brinjal and onions are most favourite vegetables of the rural population. Besides, broad-beans, mahua, lady's-finger and *khira* are also used. Of the leafy vegetables, *rai-ki-bhaji* and *chana-bhaji* are frequently used when available. Meat is an occasional dish taken on some festive occasion. The more popular among the villagers is the meat of goat and fowl Fish is also taken. Pig is taken by Basors. Milk products and milk are consumed by the people who can afford it or who have milch cattle Of the milk products, curd, butter-milk and ghee are occasionally prepared. Sweets are not commonly prepared in the villages, but are sometimes purchased from the local weekly market. The popular sweets are *jalebi, barfi, batasa, chironji-dana* and *laddu*. The most commonly used oils for cooking purposes are ramtil or jagni (nigar-seed), til (*Sesamum*) and gulli (*Bassia latifolia*), in order of preference. Occasionally, ghee is also used for preparing delicacies Basors use lard (hog fat) in lieu of ghee. Nowadays '*dalda*' is also becoming popular among the people.

On festive occasions the com e of meals increases to the joy of the household members. Usually, it consists of *sohari* (small circular bread, fried in jagni oil), rice, *dal*, vegetable curry, *bhajia* and *lapsi* (a boiled mixture of *atta* and gur). On marriage occasions *thuli*, rice, *sohari* and *lapsi* are prepared to entertain the guests.

The preparation of food is one of the main functions of the house-wife. Usually, four methods are practised in cooking food, namely, boiling, roasting, frying and steaming. Bread is prepared by baking it on the frying pan and then roasting it over fire.

The villagers, as a rule, observe ritual cleanliness to some extent with regard to the taking of food. In Jabalpur people will not take meals without taking bath and changing the garments.

The offering of food to gods, before the meal, is not followed strictly now, but old members still observe the custom. All people wash their hands before and after meals. A woman in Jabalpur District must not cook food without taking bath and changing the

sari, otherwise, she is deemed to be *asode,* polluted. Normally a woman remains unclean for about 3 or 4 days during the menstruation period. A woman after child-birth remains unclean for about 12 days, during which period she is not allowed to cook food, etc

Utensils—The villagers, as a matter of fact, do not use many cooking utensils. Usually earthen and brass pots are used for cooking food. The commonly used utensils are *handi,* a round earthen or brass pot for boiling rice or *dal*, *paiwa*, an earthen vessel used for cooking rice etc; *karahi*, a broad shallow iron pan for frying *puri*, etc, *rout pouna* or *tawa*, an iron girdle plate for baking bread; *tabela*, a shallow aluminium pan used for cooking *dal* etc; *danwa*, a wooden ladel for stirring *dal*, *thali*, a brass plate having raised rim and used for eating rice, etc; *lota*, a brass pot used for drinking water; *louka,* a gourd ladel; and *usa-belwa*, used for rolling bread The hearth or *chulah* is usually a horse shoe shaped structure having raised earthen walls of about 6 to 8 inches in height. It has only one orifice in the front through which fire is kindled with fuel. *Kopar* is a large flat dish with raised circular rim and is used for pasting *atta*. *Silhi-lorha*, made of stone pieces, is used for grinding spices, etc.

Amusements—The most popular amusement in the cities and towns of the District is the cinema which attracts a large crowd. Collective singing at festivals especially Holi, remains to be a quite common amusement among the people. Besides gossips, occasional exhibitions, circus shows and open-air theatres are also popular means of amusement

Festivals.—Apart from all India festivals, *viz.*, Holi, Diwali, Dussehra, etc, the festivals of local significance, such as Akhti in Vaisakha among the Kurmis and Ram Navami in Chaitra among the Lodhis are important. The former marks the beginning of agricultural operation. Besides, Rakhi and Harivai in Sravana, Janmashtami, Tija and Harchat in Bhadra, Nag Panchami in Sravana and Shivaratri in Magha are also celebrated with customary enthusiasm.

Communal Life

One of the important pilgrim centres in the District is Bheraghat which is nearly 13 miles from Jabalpur. The meeting place of Bawanganga and Narmada is known as Panchvatighat. "It is said that this *ghat* is one of the several charming *thirthasthans*, (holy places) referred to in the Mahabharat, and Yudhishthira is said to

have visited it."[1] As every confluence of rivers is held sacred, bathing here also is considered holy resulting in purifying the soul. The "King Gaya Karna attended by his queen and his son, his prime-minister and his commander-in-chief, his treasurer and his family priest, and other officials" also bathed here on the occasion of making a grant of land to certain Brahmans. "Here also bathed queen Gosala Devi, the widow of king Narsingh Deva, on making a grant of village to a Brahman."[2] The ancient temple at Bheraghat is known as the 'shrine of Gauri Shanker from the group of those deities placed inside the cloister as the shrine of th 'Chaunsat Jogini' or goddesses attendant on Durga'. A large fair is held here in Kartik, which lasts for 3 or 4 days. A large number of pilgrims from the adjoining places attend the same and bathe in the sacred water of the *ghat*.

Dance.—The communal dances are still popular among the Ahirs at the time of festive occasions, especially at Diwali festival. The dancing, and singing to the dance, among the tribal-folk of the District is still popular on the occasions of festivals, feasts, etc. At Holi or *phag*, they assemble around the pyre and dance to the rythm of drums and cymbals, squirting coloured water at one another. This is called *phag-khelna*. On special occasions Gonds, Kols and Bhumias, dance the *saila* (males only), *rala* or *reina* (women only), *karma* (both) and *birha* dances. Among the Kols, dancing is an inevitable accompaniment of every gathering. The *karma* dance is popular among them also and they perform it in a more lively fashion.

Games.—The traditional public games are gradually losing ground to modern games in the urban tract; but they are still played in the rural areas. The most popular among them are *gulli-danda*, *kho*, *kabaddi*, *gend*, etc. The schools in the rural parts provide facility for hockey football and volleyball also, but it remains confined to the students of the school.

Clubs and Associations.—Among the clubs and associations providing recreational facilities to the people is Bapu Samaj at Jabalpur which maintains a playground besides providing recreational facilities to children in order to educate them. This was established in 1919 and is affiliated to the Guild of Madras. It also runs a library and a reading-room. The Navayuvak Mandal at Garha works for the promotion of physical, social and cultural development of the people in the city. This Mandal organises summer camps and celebrates festivals. It is affiliated to Jabalpur Olympic Association.

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1. Jubbulpore District Gazetteer (quoted Vana Parwa Chapter CXXI, Verses 16-17), p. 336.
2. *Ibid*, p. 337.

There are also some clubs in Jabalpur city, such as Rotary Club, Jabalpur, Gujarati Club, and Bengali and Muslim Clubs which provide recreational and cultural facilities. The old *akharas* are gradually disappearing from the city.

Economic and Professional Groups

The more marked economic and professional groups in the District are the former Malguzars and money-lenders, the tenant class, and lastly the artisan class.

Though modern tendencies have largely influenced the economic condition and the social outlook of the people, yet the pattern of traditional social life still essentially continues. The functional groups no longer govern the occupations strictly. In the urban-influenced villages, with the abolition of Malguzari both economic and social status of Malguzars has adversely been affected. The result is that the villagers now feel emancipated both socially and economically. A more democratic broad-based leadership has emerged, consisting of Sarpanch, members of the village Panchayat and social and political workers. But the village money lender who used to be the corner stone of indigenous banking has, however, retained his hold to a considerable extent. The much oppressed tenant class has now emerged as more self reliant, awakened to its rights and responsibilities, and economically better, owing to the multi pronged developmental efforts of the Government.

The landless labour-class and artisan class have also improved their economic condition and widened their social out-look. The industrial and urban centres have increased their occupational mobility and shaken off the traditional occupational prejudices. But in the remote isolated villages functional groups are still more or less caste groups.

CHAPTER IV

AGRICULTURE AND IRRIGATION

Agriculture is the predominant source of income of Jabalpur District. The total income of the District in 1956-57 was Rs. 3,233,36 lakhs. Of this total District income, the agriculture sector alone contributed Rs. 1,253.16 lakhs, *i.e.*, 38·7 per cent. Income accruing from animal husbandry, hunting, fishery and forestry amounted to Rs 157·73 lakhs, *i.e.*, 4·9 per cent of the total District income.

Agriculture is the most important occupation of the people in this District. The Census of 1961 records a population of 12.74 lakhs of whom 5,80,999 are returned as workers. Of these workers 2,50,608 or 43 per cent are cultivators and 96,488 or 16.6 per cent are agricultural labourers. In 1951, agriculture was the main source of livelihood to 5,98,931 persons or 57·3 per cent of the total population of the District. It provided 1,15,989 persons with secondary income. The size of the different classes depending mainly on agriculture (1951) is shown in the following table:—

Livelihood Classes	Self-Supporting Persons		Earning Dependants		Non-Earning Dependants		
	Males	Females	Males	Females	Males	Females	Total
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)	(8)
Cultivators of owned lands and their dependants	98,453	12,367	29,235	65,800	87,057	1,34,001	4,26,913
Cultivators of unowned lands and their dependants	4,995	704	1,145	4,008	3,639	4,716	19,207
Cultivating labourers and their dependants	38,223	20,708	8,034	24,191	25,703	30,892	1,47,756
Non-cultivating owners of land, agricultural rent receivers and their dependants	1,061	713	170	333	1,252	1,526	5,055
All Classes ..	1,42,732	34,492	38,584	94,932	1,17,656	1,71,135	5,98,931

It is evident that in this District the majority of persons belonging to the agricultural classes are owners of land cultivating their own fields. Labourers who work for wages are the next most numerous class and tenant cultivators constitute but a small minority. The number of non-cultivating owners and rent receivers is very small. The size of the agricultural population as a percentage of the total population varies considerably from tahsil to tahsil as shown below :—

District/Tahsil	Agricultural Classes (%)	Non-Agricultural Classes (%)
(1)	(2)	(3)
Jabalpur district ..	57.3	42.7
Jabalpur tahsil	30.8	69.2
Sihora tahsil ..	83.8	16.2
Murwara tahsil ..	67.7	32.3
Patan tahsil ..	78.4	21.6

Three tahsils, *viz*., Sihora, Murwara and Patan are mainly agricultural. Jabalpur tahsil, however, shows a preponderance of non-agricultural classes. The growth of industries in the tahsil and the concentration of professional population largely account for this peculiar feature.

In 1963-64 the total area of the District was 25 lakh acres (10 lakh ha.*). About 42.1 per cent of the total area was cropped area. Food crops occupied a major part of the total cropped area, approximately 93.4 per cent, oilseed crops claiming 6.3 per cent. The District lies in the wheat zone of the State .It is principally a *rabi* area, with 58.9 per cent of its total cropped area under *rabi* crops Wheat and gram were sown in 29.9 per cent and 18.2 per cent of the total cropped area, respectively. Amongst the *kharif* crops, rice was raised on 23.2 per cent and jowar on 2.8 per cent of the total cropped area.

Lodhi, Kurmi, Gond, Kol, Pradhan, Ahibani and Bagari constitute the main agricultural communities.

LAND RECLAMATION AND UTILILZATION

Jabalpur District consists of a long narrow plain shut in along its length on two sides by highlands.

*ha stands for hectare.

The *haveli* is an area of embanked wheat fields and heavy black soil. It is so called as the embankments are as high as a *haveli*. Others say that this tract derives its name from the fact that it produces such bumper crops that very soon a cultivator can construct a *haveli*. In this tract most of the area is under cultivation. In the trap area in the south-east the soil is generally poor and raises kodon-kutki. The eastern part of Sihora tahsil is covered with hills and jungles. The area to the west of Bahoriband is not well-watered and produces more *kharif* than *rabi* crop and from the point of view of cultivation is precarious. The western part of Murwara tahsil is similar to the Bahoriband tract. The entire eastern part of the southern boundary of this tahsil is covered with forest. The eastern part of the tahsil is an open country. The best villages are found in a long valley formed by the Kaimur and Kahenjua hills and the banks of the Mahanadi. It contains black soil and raises *rabi* crops.

The area of the District according to village papers remained fairly constant at 25 lakh acres (10 lakh ha.). The following table shows the utilization of land in the District in the year 1963-64:—

Classification	Area		
	(Acres)	(Ha)	(Per cent)
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)
Area according to village papers	24,90,109	10,10,919	100
Forests	5,52,898	2,23,750	22.1
Barren and unculturable land	53,753	21,753	2.1
Land put to non-agricultural uses	1,35,546	54,853	5.4
Culturable waste	1,70,132	68,850	7.8
Permanent pastures and other grazing lands	2,68,462	1,08,643	10.7
Land under miscellaneous tree crops and groves not included in net area sown	45,970	18,603	1.0
Current fallows	79,211	32,055	3.2
Other fallow lands	1,41,517	57,269	5.7
Net area sown	10,50,620	4,25,173	42.0

In 1963-64 the net cultivated area was about 42.0 per cent of the total area of the District. The percentage of total cultivated area to total area is the highest (67.9 per cent) in Patan tahsil and the lowest (43.7 per cent) in Sihora.

Culturable Waste

Culturable waste in the District in 1963-64 has been put at 1,70,132 acres, *i.e.* 6.9 per cent of the total area. Each village is required to set apart a certain proportion of its area as common land, and this area is normally excluded from the area classified as culturable waste, thus reducing the actual area under culturable waste in the villages. The experience of the Waste Land Survey and Reclamation Committee[1] also indicates the need for taking the actual area as less than 1,70,132 acres.

A Survey designed to assess the extent of culturable waste lands in Jabalpur District was conducted during 1961-62. This survey revealed that the total area of culturable waste lands was 1,09,630 acres (48,411 ha.) as against 1,71,775 acres (69,514 ha.) reported in the returns of Agricultural Statistics for 1961-62. Thus, the actual area of culturable waste lands according to this survey was only 64 per cent of that reported in the Patwari paper. These waste lands consisted of 55,484 parcels. Their tahsil-wise distribution is presented in the table below.

Tahsil	Details of Culturable WasteLands			Percentage to Total Area of Tahsil/District
	No. of Blocks	Area		
		(Acres)	(Ha)	
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
1. Jabalpur	10,517	25,573	10,349	4.6
2. Patan	6,004	13,444	5,441	3.9
3. Murwara	27,774	40,898	16,551	6.1
4. Sihora	11,189	29,715	12,025	4.2
Total for District	55,484	1,09,630	44,366	4.8

1. Report on the Location and Utilization of Waste Lands in India, Part IV, Madhya Pradesh, 1961, p. 6.

Most of the blocks were scattered in small patches. The average area of each block worked out to 1·98 acres (0·80 ha·). The classification of these blocks is shown below.

Size of Blocks		Number (%)	Area (%)
(1)		(2)	(3)
5 acres and less	..	91.2	55.1
5-15 acres	.. ..	7.6	29.6
More than 15 acres	..	1.2	15.3

There were only 42 blocks of more than 50 acres (20 ha·) and 6 of more than 100 acres (40 ha·).

Blocks of culturable wastelands aggregating 50,097 acres (20,273 ha.), comprised in unoccupied holdings, are not known to have ever been cultivated in the past except unauthorised cultivation in a few of them. As regards blocks in occupied holdings totalling 59,533 acres (24,092 ha·), 92·6 per cent of them were not cultivated for the last 5 to 10 years and about 7·2 per cent for 10 to 20 years. Various reasons have been responsible for the culturable wastelands in occupied holdings remaining out of cultivation, the principal being the low productivity of soil necessitating long periods of resting fallows, and soil deterioration on account of erosion. Sometimes the land was beyond the requirements of the owner. Poverty, lack of irrigation facilities, scarcity of labour, damage by wild animals, etc., were other contributory reasons. Bulk of the culturable waste lands, *i.e.*, 76,333 acres (30,890 ha·) consisted of inferior types of soil, *viz.*, *patarua*, *bhatua* and *barra*, hence suited for the growing of inferior grains only after reclamation and development. Majority of the blocks were found to be grown with grass, scrubs and in some places with big trees. Almost the entire area of the culturable waste was used for the grazing of cattle.

Most of the wasteland is immediately reclamable. In 1963-64, 1.70 lakh acres were shown as culturable wasteland. Out of these 0·80 lakh acres (0·32 lakh ha.) were stated to be immediately reclamable and 0·57 lakh acres (0.23 lakh ha·) as reclamable after some expenditure. The cost of reclamation of 0.33 lakh acres (0.14 lakh ha·) was stated to be prohibitive.

The first systematic effort to utilise these wastelands started under the Second Five Year Plan when colonization and settlement operations were placed under the charge of the Directorate of Land Records in October, 1957, and the work of allotment of lands to landless persons on an organised basis was taken up.

Government wasteland to the extent it could be cultivated by one pair of bullocks was allotted to one family. Before it was allotted the land was reclaimed at Government expense which generally did not exceed Rs. 80 per acre. Each allottee was also advanced a loan of Rs. 1,700 for the purchase of bullocks and agricultural implements and for building a house; and half the amount spent on building the house was treated as grant, provided it was properly and fully utilized. Two colonies extending over 99 acres and 78 acres and consisting of 14 and nine families, respectively, were settled during the years 1959 and 1960 at Kirhai Pipariya and Kharai. Culturable wastelands aggregating 3,850 acres were also allotted to individual cultivators during the years 1957-58 and 1958-59.

Kans has done considerable damage to agricultural land in Jabalpur District Its large creeping roots go down deep into the soil, in some cases upto 86 inches. The underground, consisting of a network of rhizomes bearing nodes and internodes, puts forth sprouts under favourable conditions. As a result of deep penetration *kans* absorbs the moisture and nutritive elements in the soil. The shallow roots of the crops are, thus, practically left with nothing to feed upon. The Indian plough which scratches the earth to a depth of three to four inches is hardly able to eradicate this pernicious weed. Moreover, the crust of the soil becomes so hard that the ordinary implements used by the cultivators find it impossible to break it up

A notable attempt in the direction of ploughing *kans* infested lands was made in the year 1926-27 when a Fowler's steam ploughing tackle was purchased and pressed into service. "The sight of this out-fit ploughing to the depth of 10 inches *kans*-infested land which in the memory of no living persons has ever been turned over by the plough has without exaggeration been one of the most interesting features of agricultural life in the north of the province."[1]

The smallness of fields, bunds and lack of credit with the farmers hindered its proper working. Its impact was not appreciable. During the years 1930-31 and 1931-32 only 708 acres (281 ha) and 333 acres (135 ha.) were ploughed It remained

1 Report of the Department of Agriculture, C P and Berar, 1926-27.

idle during the years 1932-35. It worked by fits and starts for about a quarter of a century.

The State Government purchased tractors and started ploughing operations in the District from the year 1948-49 under a scheme known as 'Machine Tractor Scheme'. The work was mainly confined to the ploughing of cultivated and current fallow lands infested with *kans*. Ploughing was done to a depth of 8" to 10" in order to loosen the soil for increasing its water-soaking capacity and for the removal of weeds which were difficult to be removed with bullock-drawn implements. During the period of 14 years (1948-49 to 1961-62) 57,656 acres (23,351 ha.) have been ploughed, out of which about 14,000 acres (5,670 ha.) were fallow lands infested with *kans*. The year-wise break-up of tractor-ploughed area is given below.

Year	Area	
	(Acres)	(Hectares)
(1)	(2)	(3)
1948-49	1,573	637
1949-50	3,062	1,240
1950-51	3,445	1,395
First Plan		
1951-52	1,563	633
1952-53	3,379	1,369
1953-54	4,804	1,946
1954-55	8,232	3,334
1955-56	3,307	1,339
Second Plan		
1956-57	13,008	5,268
1957-58	3,000	1,215
1958-59	2,362	957
1959-60	3,840	1,555
1960-61	3,081	1,218
Third Plan		
1961-62	3,000	1,215
	67,656	23,351

IRRIGATION

Prior to the introduction of State irrigation, private tanks and wells were the main source of irrigation in the District. These, however, irrigated a small area and offered little security against drought. A series of crop-failures in the 'nineties of the last century rivetted attention on the question of State irrigation.

Early in 1901 the Public Works Department took up a preliminary examination of the District with a view to finding suitable sites for the construction of government irrigation works. In the following year experimental works were started at Parachital and Silpuri in Sihora tahsil. The Parachital reservoir and the Silpuri tar scheme were completed in 1904-05. In a tar scheme an earthen embankment or a masonry dam across a perennial stream or *nala* raises the level of the water in the stream to about its bank level so that command is obtained of the country on either side.

There is little prospect of the construction of a large canal in the district. Jabalpur District, however, is very suitable for the construction of minor works, for not only are there many streams and rivulets in which water flows till quite late in the season but the configuration of the country also lends itself in a remarkable way to the economical storage of water. Both Silpuri and Parachital are example of such schemes. The best example of a tar scheme is to be seen at Khitoli, situated at the extreme north-east of the District, in Murwara Tahsil. This was completed in 1907.

Till the Settlement of 1912, 15 government irrigation works had been completed and these served areas that were formerly exposed to a failure of the rains. Efforts to expand irrigation facilities continued till 1929 when the Irrigation Committee appointed by the Provincial Government recommended the suspension of the construction of all irrigation works in C. P. and Berar. A period of inactivity lasting till 1911 followed. In 1944 a few small irrigation works were started under the Grow More Food Campaign and three tanks, *viz.*, Kaudia (1952), Podwara (1948-51) and Sagwan(1952) were completed. This Campaign, launched by the Government of India for the production of additional food, included construction of medium irrigation schemes by the Irrigation Department and petty schemes by the Agriculture Department. Under the latter class the following schemes were taken up:—

(1) Sinking of new wells,

(2) Repairs to old wells, and

(3) Construction and repairs of village tanks.

The response to the call for construction of village tanks by the cultivators was poor. Government, therefore, changed its policy and entrusted the execution of tanks irrigating more than 50 acres (20 ha.) to the State Irrigation Department. Later, when a separate Village Project Division was sanctioned, tanks irrigating up to 600 acres (243 ha.) were also included in the scheme.

The First Five Year Plan laid emphasis on self-sufficiency in agricultural production. With this end in view the construction of irrigation works was stressed. Two scarcity area irrigation schemes, medium in character, *viz*., Bhitrigarh and Jhirigiri were included in the First Five Year Plan of the District. However, in the absence of necessary preliminary investigations and surveys the logical outcome of the suspension of irrigation activities during the two decades preceding the First Plan held up early implementation of these schemes. These were started during the Second Five Year Plan period. Bhitrigarh Project envisages the construction of an earthen dam across Niewar nullah near village Bhitrigarh in Katni tahsil of the District. It is estimated to cost Rs. 30.25 lakhs and will irrigate an area of 2,736 acres of land in Jabalpur District. An amount of Rs. 10.70 lakhs was spent up to the end of Second Plan.

Jhirigiri Scheme envisages the construction of an earthen dam in Katni tahsil of the District. The total length of the channels would be 13.5 miles. It is estimated to cost Rs. 48.10 lakhs and will irrigate an area of 1,800 acres of land in Jabalpur District. An amount of Rs. 0.30 lakhs was spent up to the end of Second Plan and Rs. 30.00 lakhs have been provided in the Third Plan.

Some minor irrigation works mentioned below were taken up by the Public Works Department during the First Five Year Plan period.

Name of Project	Estimated Cost	Area Proposed for Irrigation	
	(Rs. in lakhs)	(Acres)	(Hectares)
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)
1. Barnoo Tank	41.05	6,141	2,487
2. Madai Tank	36.00	5,794	2,347
3. Ghutehi Tank	6.00	1,121	454
4. Bahoriband Tank	5.00	2,501	1,013
5. Simrar Tank	27.92	6,450	2,612
6. Datla Tank	62.20	5,312	2,151

Datla stands completed. Barnoo, Madai, Ghutehi and Simrar are nearing completion. The following five village projects were also completed during the same period.

Name of Project	Estimated Cost (Rs. in lakhs)	Area Proposed for Irrigation (Acres)	(Ha.)
1 Mohgaonnala (Sugwan Tank) ..	0 21	300	121
2. Patohan Tank	1 44	340	138
3. Kaudia Tank	0 45	500	203
4. Padwar Tank	0 90	300	121
5. Sihora Regulator	0.36	4,700	1,902

With the advent of the Second Five Year Plan it was proposed to tackle the problems of *nistar* and irrigation on village basis With this end in view, many small works for *nistar* purposes and irrigation were started. Such works consisting principally of regulators have been described separately.

A number of schemes—big and small—have been proposed for the Third Five Year Plan. A sum of Rs 17 21 lakhs was allotted to Jabalpur District for construction, repair and renovation of tanks during the Third Plan period[1]. Besides, the following spill-over schemes are being completed now.

Name of Work	Cost (Rs. in lakhs)	Irrigable Area (Acres)	(Ha.)
1. Madai tank	36.00	5,794	2,347
2 Ghutehi tank	6.00	1,121	454
3. Bahoriband tank remodelling	5.00	2,501	1,013
4. Barnoo tank	41.05	6,141	2,487
5. Simrar tank	27.92	6,450	2,612
6. Bhitrigarh tank	30.25	2,736	1,108
7. Godana tank	6.21	751	304
8. Paraswara tank (Collector's Sector)	0.30	86	35

1. Third Five Year Plan, Vol. II, Madhya Pradesh, p. 57.

A list of irrigation works presently being maintained by P.W.D. (Irrigation Branch) is given in Appendix A, Table VI.

Regulators

Temporary earthen bunds thrown across streams during the monsoon season secure the flooding of the bunded fields and benefit the land by submergence. But when flooding is uncontrolled, the field bunds break and sometimes cause large scale damage. Recently attempts have been made to have controlled flooding through the device of regulators, and the practice of putting up temporary bunds has been given up. This has also helped in minimising recurring costs.

Regulators are masonry structures having *karries* or gates for regulation purposes. In earlier constructions wooden gates were used. Now they have been replaced by steel shutters operated from the top. They are generally constructed across small *nalas*. The first regulator in the State was constructed at Sihora, 25 miles from Jabalpur, on Bahnala having a catchment area of 35 sq. miles. It has been provided with double rows of plank shutters. The planks have handles attached to them and they could, therefore, be taken out even during the floods by means of chains provided with hooks at their end. It is a cheap work typically suited to the conditions met with in the District. It was constructed under the Village Project Scheme. The regulator was taken up at an initial cost of Rs. 12,500 only to irrigate 3,300 acres of *kharif* and *rabi* land The scheme was remodelled in the year 1960 at a total cost of Rs. 36,000. It is now capable of irrigating an area of 1,700 acres of *kharif* and *rabi* land. Flooding has, thus, been achieved at a low cost.

The success of this regulator induced the construction of similar works in subsequent years in that tract and other areas. Such irriga-

tion works taken up under the Second Five Year Plan and included in the Third Five Year Plan of the District are listed in Appendix A, Table X. These small schemes, besides being directly beneficial, have succeeded in arousing irrigation consciousness in the cultivator.

These works were taken up during the Second Five Year Plan and most of them were completed. The spilled over-works are also almost complete.

Two regulators of the Block Sector-Katangi and Dithawara, estimated to cost Rs 0·58 lakhs and Rs 0·50 lakhs, are expected to irrigate 300 and 250 acres (122 and 101 ha.), respectively. They are being continued in the Third Plan. The small scale irrigation works included in the Third Five Year Plan are shown in the table below.

S. No.	Name of Work	Estimated Cost (Rs)	Irrigable Area (Acres)	Irrigable Area (Ha)
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
1	Badha Regulator near Villayat kalan	[illegible]	150	61
2	Bhandpura Regulator	10,300	150	61
3	Vinobagram Regulator	9,850	75	30
4	Dabarakalan Regulator ..	10,000	160	65
5	Luharwara Regulator	14,686	200	81
6	Jhilunda Anicut .	38,506	100	11
7	Ghugri Regulator .	10,957	200	81
8	Lodhi Pipariya Regulator .	11,276	125	51
9	Kedari Regulator ..	10,590	150	61
10	Dharampura Regulator ..	10,000	160	65
11	Amagawan Anicut	18,019	150	61
12	Anterved	49,500	250	101
13	Bichhua	44,500	300	121
14	Bedganga	96,000	300	121
15	Deori	36,000	250	101
16	Murwari	13,450	200	81
17	Bilsara	18,905	50	20
18	Narela	17,650	125	51
19	Bakhleta	48,000	102	41
20	Mohas	1,36,000	215	87
21	Dauh	36,500	180	72
22	Laxman Sagar	55,670	297	120
23	Shribandh (Diversion Scheme) ..	64,600	462	1[illegible]6

Tube-Well Irrigation

Under the All India Exploratory Drilling Programme the Government of India selected the Narmada Valley for the boring of tube-wells, on the basis of its geological feasibility for ground-water formations. In the District of Jabalpur, Shahpura-Bheraghat area, an alluvial tract, was selected. This area is roughly rectangular in shape and is about 13 miles long and 3½ miles wide, and extends from Shahpura in the west to midway between the Bheraghat Railway Station and Jabalpur in the east. Its southern boundary extends to within a mile of the river. In this area three pilot boreholes were drilled by the Exploratory Tube-Wells Organisation, of which only one was converted into a production well. It was handed over to the State Government for future operation and maintenance, so that it could be used for irrigation purposes as soon as ready. This tube-well is located in the Shahpura Block of the Patan Tahsil and started functioning from 1958. At present the well is commanding an area of 250 acres (101 ha.) of the Pondi village. By 1961-62 there were 28 tube-wells in the District.

In subsequent years tube-wells were constructed at Khirkiya-Kheda, Patan, Umariya, Dighori, Udna, Ghunsour and Mankhedi in Patan Tahsil.

Irrigation Potential

Jabalpur is commanded mainly by two rivers, *viz.*, the Hiran and the Mahanadi and their tributaries with a total catchment area of 1.817 and 1.536 sq. miles respectively, (*i.e.*, 3.353 sq. miles) in the District. Only small areas in the southern and northern parts of the District form the catchment area of the Narmada and rivers of the Ganga-Yamuna basin.

Taking an everage rainfall of 53" for the last 12 years in the District, the total yield from the above catchments within the District comes to 214,647 mcft., and probable losses on account of absorption, evaporation and utilization for *nistar* purposes aggregate to 70,834 mcft *i.e.*, about a third of the total yield. Thus, the net yield available for irrigation purposes comes to 143,813 mcft. Out of this, about 27,248 mcft. are being impounded and utilised at present through State tanks, private tanks, lift irrigation, tube-wells, rivers and *nala* bunding, etc. The unutilized yield, *i.e.*, 1,16,565 mcft forms the potential for further utilization, the use of which is being planned through construction of tanks. It is further proposed to harness the river Narmada at Bargi. However, this scheme will benefit Jabalpur Dis-

trict to a very small extent. Further, it is proposed to explore the waters of the river Hiran at a site at Badua for which surveys and investigations are being carried out. Tube-wells are another source which promises ample supply of water for irrigation.

Field Embankments

The District is famous for its embanked land which implies a system of water conservation by means of submerging tanks. The first impulse of a cultivator wishing to improve his land is to embank it for wheat. This system of water conservation is characteristic of the agricultural economy of the District. Ordinarily the tanks do not do any direct irrigation. They benefit the land by submergence. The mere field boundaries, a foot or so high surrounding the fields, are not covered by this system. These *bundhis* consist of earthen embankments thrown across sidelong ground. During the rainy season water is stored upstream and the lands get submerged. If the land slope is gradual, often large areas get submerged even by low embankments. In the case of big embankments impounding big catchments, the surplus water is allowed to escape through a regular masonry waste-weir generally located in one of the flanks, and sluice-gates are provided at the deepest point to drain out the water. After the rains, water is let out and the tank-bed released for cultivation

In the *haveli* tract of Jabalpur which is an area of embanked wheat fields, the soil is heavy black containing substantial portion of clay. This enables it to retain moisture for a long time and it is possible to grow a good crop of wheat therein without irrigation. Thus, the system confers the same irrigation benefits as paleo-watering. *Rabi* sowings in embanked land are safe even in comparatively dry years, provided the rainfall of August and September is favourable.

Another advantage of submerging the land in this manner is that the first floods bring lot of silt which acts as a rich manure. So also, growth of weeds is arrested. Under natural rainfall conditions, weeds have a tendency to grow because, the fields get water gradually and in stages which helps their growth. By suddenly flooding the land whatever weeds already existed, die out, as they cannot stand continuous submersion. The dead weeds greatly enhance the manurial value of the soil. Expenditure on the removal of weeds is also saved. A third and a very important advantage of the submerging of fields is soil conservation. By preventing free flow of water across steep gradients, the agricultural wealth of the soil is permanently conserved.

The land embanked for wheat in Jabalpur District falls under the following heads:

(i) *Narbandha*, (ii) *Bandhwa*, and (iii) *Tagar Bandhia*.

Narbandhas are to be found most commonly in the Murwara tahsil though such land, which might be thus classed, is also found in other tahsils of the District. As understood by the people the term is used to describe land upon which water from a large catchment area is caused to accumulate during the rains by means of one or more embankments, not infrequently producing a lake many acres in extent. Most *narbandhas* are provided with masonry sluices of solid construction.

Narbandh embankments are generally of very large dimensions exceeding the bank of a tank both in height and substance. Land which is really *narbandh* is of exceptional value. It yields good crops even in the years of famine. Wheat in *narbandh* fields is very liable to rust if the spring is wet and the monsoons have been heavy, but such disadvantages are much more than outweighed by the security which they confer upon cultivation.

The term *bandhwa* is applied to field embankments of substantial nature, but a *bandhwa* field does not obtain its supply of water from a catchment area and will not fill unless the rainfall is sufficient. The embankments of most *bandhwa* fields must be cut to let out the water

The term *tagar bandhia* is applied to fields, the embankments of which are, as a rule, not high enough and not sufficiently substantial to necessitate their being cut to let out water. They are of little use in ensuring security of cultivation, yet their main advantages are that they prevent scouring when there is only average rainfall, hold up a certain amount of water, help to secure a moist seedbed, and render the field more productive than what it would be otherwise. From such fields the water escapes by percolation.

Area Irrigated.—A natural corollary of the slow pace of development of irrigation facilities was that the extent of cultivated area under irrigation has been quite small in Jabalpur District. At the 30 years' Settlement only 1.9 thousand acres were in receipt of irrigation. The irrigated area had increased to four thousand acres by 1908-09, and to 7.6 thousand acres or 0.8 per cent of the cropped area by 1917-18. In the year 1918-19, the irrigated area shot up to 13.3 thousand acres (1.5 per cent of the cropped area). Irrigation

has continuously expanded since then, the area remaining round about 20,000 acres till 1946-47. The post-Independence period, particularly the Plan period, witnessed further advance in the creation of irrigation facilities, the irrigated area being 30,000 acres in 1951-52 (3 per cent of the cropped area). In 1961-62 the District had 34.7 thousand irrigated acres or 3.2 per cent of the net area sown. The tahsil-wise break-up of the irrigated area was as under:—

Jabalpur	.	6,510 acres (2,634 ha.)
Patan	...	738 acres (298 ha)
Sihora	...	11,398 acres (4,612 ha.)
Murwara	...	16,013 acres (6,480 ha.)

Sources of Irrigation

Statistics of area irrigated by source are available from the year 1909-10. Figures for canals and tanks have been amalgamated till the year 1949-50. These figures reveal that well irrigation has expanded but little over the 50 year period, from 1909-10 to 1959-60, the area irrigated being about 3,000 acres (1,215 ha.) only. The highest area, *viz*, 4.4 thousand acres (1,782 ha.) was recorded in 1961-62. In that year 65 Government wells (40 masonry and 25 non-masonry) and 2,684 private wells (2,003 masonry and 681 non-masonry) were enumerated. One thousand three hundred and thirty-six wells had independent *ayacut*. On the other hand, increasing cropped area has come under the command of canals and tanks. These sources irrigated 1,300 acres in 1909-10, 8,300 acres in 1919-20, 15,000 acres in 1929-30, 17,400 acres in 1939-40 and 19,200 acres in 1949-50. Separate figures for canals and tanks show that tanks irrigated only 279 acres (112 ha.) in 1963-64, a minor role as a source of irrigation compared to wells. In 1963-64, there were 107 Government canals 84 miles long, which irrigated 32,390 acres (13,107 ha.). Similarly, 2,308 reservoirs were recorded. Out of 52 tube-wells recorded, 10 were owned by Government and the rest were private.

Mote is the principal source of lifting water. In 1961, 2,406 *motes* were in use. The number of Persian wheels used was 86. Besides 61 oil-engines and 165 electric-pumps were also in use for irrigation purposes.

Crops Irrigated.—Rice had the largest irrigated acreage, being 27,420 (11,096 ha.) in 1963-64. Wheat had only 5,557 irrigated acres (2,248 ha.). Potatoes claimed 2,111 acres (854 ha.) and sugarcane 807 acres (326 ha). In terms of proportion of a crop actually irrigated

only 9.6 per cent of paddy, 1.5 per cent of wheat, 98.8 per cent of potato and 56.8 per cent of sugarcane were raised as irrigated crops.

Soil Conservation

Each part of the District has its own problems depending upon the type of soil, slope, rainfall and cropping pattern. In the Vindhyan hill areas of Sihora and Murwara tahsils where the soil is light to medium in structure, the rainfall ranges from 45" to 60" and the percentage of slope varies from 1 to 6, the problem of soil erosion is negligible as paddy is the main crop and almost all the rain water is impounded in fields for crop growth. There are few patches of *rabi* crops which need soil conservation measures. The undulating topography can be earmarked for pasture development.

In the Narmada Valley one comes across black soil, mainly composed of clay and silt washed down the hills by rivers. The depth of the soil varies from 10 ft. to 50 ft. The land is not cultivable during the rains due to high content of clay. As such, the practice of impounding water during rains, popularly known as *haveli* method, is widely followed. The problem of erosion is negligible in this area.

The other typical structure of the soil is also seen within a distance of three miles from the river banks. The soil depth, no doubt, varies from 5' to even 50' but due to poor structure and high percentage of silt the soil is practically devoid of resisting capacity, and as such, has been under severe erosion, with the result that the top soil has also developed steep slopes and deep gullies in various directions. An acute erosion problem exists and it is beyond the capacity of the cultivators to face the same in this area.

In the Satpura plateau of Kundam and Bargi area the problem of erosion is quite different from that in the rest of the District. The entire area is hilly. Slopes differ in grade from 2 per cent to 30 per cent. The rainfall ranges between 50" and 60" with high velocity. The cultivable land is found in patches mostly in valleys. On account of undulations the soil has been so badly eroded that except boulders and *kankers* nothing is seen on the top of the land. In this area it was observed that nearly 75 to 80 per cent of the top soil has been washed away at many places and the land was left too poor for cultivation.

The Forest Department is undertaking soil conservation measures in the forest land. Such works are being carried out in Bargi range. An area of 100 acres was taken up for this purpose. The usual practices of water-conservation and contour-trenching and bunding

were successfully applied. *Khair* was sown and it has come up nicely. Alongwith *khair*, plantations of teak, *maharukh* and cashew have also been tried. This work will be extended to the adjoining areas in the subsequent years.

The scheme of contour-bunding was started by the Agriculture Department in the year 1958 in Katangi circle of Patan tahsil Nearly 2,500 acres (1,013 ha.) of land has so far been protected under the scheme.

Soils

Soils of the District may be classed according to their physical properties, the crops they grow and their position.

Jabalpur District has cosmopolitan types of soils, formed by the decomposition of fragmental quartz, felspar and silica which are mixed with alumina, iron, magnesia, lime and the alkalies, their proportions being determined by the nature of the parent rock. The best and most fertile of the soils are made up of particles worn down to a very fine degree of comminution and correspondingly well decomposed, these being generally described as clay soils. At the other extreme are sands consisting of large particles of nearly pure silica and between the two exist various degrees of clays, loams, sandy loams, etc. Roughly speaking the clays occur at the lowest and the sands at the highest levels, this being largely caused by rain wash removing the finest particles from elevations and depositing them in the valleys. This erosion which takes place in every field lying on a slope is prevented to a great extent by the construction of embankments. The soils in which clay predominates are remarkable for their power of retaining moisture and their continuous fertility, but those composed chiefly of sand are only fertile during seasons of abundant precipitation. Good wheat-producing soils of stiff nature contain in this District from 40 to 50 per cent of clay and rather less than six per cent of organic matter. A good sandy-loam contains upto 30 per cent of clay and as the percentage of clay decreases and the sand increases, the soil becomes poorer.

At the Settlement of 1912 the soils of the District were divided into 10 classes, *viz.*, (1) *kabar I*, (2) *kabar II*, (3) *mund I*, (4) *mund II*, (5) *domatta*, (6) *sehra*, (7) *patarua*, (8) *bhatua*, (9) *barra*, and (10) *kachhar*. The most valuable are *kabar* and *mund*, each of which has been divided into two classes. The intermediate classes are *domatta* and *sehra*, the inferior classes are *patarua*, *bhatua* and

barra. The peculiarities of these classes of soils are described below:—

Kabar I is a very black and tenacious soil of very close and even texture containing no pebbles. Its splendid moisture-retaining qualities are due to the fact that being a soil of great density and its outer surface drying very quickly under hot sun, it splits up into large blocks from which subsequent evaporation takes place very slowly. These blocks, though exceedingly hard and apparently dry, are found when broken containing moisture within them right up to the commencement of the hot weather. The soil in some localities consists of the more argillaceous portions of disintegrated basalts. In other localities of Jabalpur District kaolin is produced by the disintegration of felspar of the metamorphic rocks which is washed away and redeposited as clay. The dark colour of *kabar I* and the other black soils in the District is almost invariably due to the presence of magnetic oxide of iron in a finely divided state. In the years of light rainfall *kabar* will yield an excellent crop of rice, followed by a fine crop of wheat. But the cultivators say that a wheat following rice is generally one-third less in quantity than wheat sown in *kabar* which has not just yielded a rice crop. In the years of ordinary or heavy rainfall the cultivator does not, as a rule, attempt to double crop. *Kabar* is sown with the excellent wheat, or more commonly *birra* crop which is almost certain to result unless a wet spring induces rust in the wheat. *Kabar* is additionally valuable because in the years of short rainfall it can be sown, when other coarser soils, more sandy and less retentive of moisture, cannot be. It is generally embanked in Jabalpur and probably the accumulated *rasam* or solution of decayed matter which years of embanked state have deposited, has brought the land to a high pitch of fertility and darkened its colour.

Kabar when embanked cannot be ploughed directly after rain, and about three to five days are allowed to elapse after the *bandha* is cut and before the operation is attempted.

Kabar II is not so black as *kabar I*, and it will probably be found embanked. *Kabar II* is very rarely found unembanked. In characteristics *kabar II* is very like *kabar I*, but the process of disintegration has not advanced quite so far and perhaps the oxide of iron is not in such a finely divided state. Hence we get a soil coarser in texture than *kabar I*, less fertile and less retentive of moisture. The characteristic feature of fields of *kabar II* is seen in the wide fissures into which the blocks of soil are divided by the action of the sun on them when wet. It is usual to find little black nodules which the people call *kala kankar* in *kabar* soil.

Mund I soil contains nodules of white limestone which the people call *safed kankar*. These nodules are produced by the infiltration of surface waters, the coarser *mund* soil being previously the substratum of finer soil particles which have been shifted by natural forces downward the base level. *Mund I* contains no other pebbles gravel save *safed kankar*, is black with a greyish tinge, and is a friable soil which spreads well under the plough.

Mund II is lighter in colour and may contain more pebbles and limestones than *mund I*, and the distinction between that and *domatta* is hardly perceptible. The cropping alone shows the difference. *Mund II* contains too large a proportion of clay and is never sown with rice. Both classes of *mund* are essentially *rabi* soils and grow excellent crops of wheat and linseed, but they are not suitable for gram as *kabar*, in which soil tap roots of gram can go well down into the moist interior of the hard blocks.

Domatta is, as its name implies, a soil containing both the black soils already mentioned and the yellow sandy soil called *sehra* (frequently called *sahar*). The class is a wide one, its character as regards cropping varies as its component portions of black and yellow soil vary. It generally grows very fine crops of rice and when near the village site (which is usually situated above clay level) is frequently embanked and double-cropped. It is not uncommon to find *domatta* in which the proportion of black soil is so great as to prevent rice being grown upon it. Such soil generally grows wheat and is embanked, and it is rightly distinguished from *mund*. As might be expected from its composition the colour of *domatta* is of great variety. It may be grey or light or dark red with a strong black tint. But the admixture of two soils of different characters and colours is generally noticeable easily.

Sehra is the typical rice soil of the District and it is unusual to find *sehra* either double-cropped or under *rabi* crops. Small embankments of field boundaries about a foot or less in height generally surround *sehra* rice fields.

Pataruа is too thin and poor to include in the *mund*, *domatta* and *sehra* classes. It is light blackish soil growing inferior crops only. In crop capacity it is not good enough for the production of rice or wheat. Its appearance is so various that any attempt to describe it would only partially succeed. It is left fallow for about three years in succession.

Bhatua is the red soil, always shallow and stony, found on the slopes of hills and ravines. This soil can only produce oilseeds and the small millets, and *bhatua* must be given resting as fallows for five to seven years at a time.

Barra is hilly land so covered with stones that the wonder is that it is still cultivable. About every eight years a profitable crop of til or kodon can be raised.

Kachhar is the term applied to land with alluvial deposit on the banks of rivers which annually overflow their banks. The out-turn of such land is not inferior to that of *kabar I*. There is very little of such land.

Taking the soils of the District as 100, the relative proportions of the various soils were:

Soil	Proportion	Class
Kabar II	8)	
Mund I	11)	Good (31 per cent)
Mund II	12)	
Domatta	30)	
Sehra	6)	Medium (36 per cent)
Patarua	21)	
Bhatua	8)	Poor (32 per cent)
Barra	3)	
	99	

Kabar I, *kachhar*, and the village *baris* or small manured plots attached to houses together made up the remaining (and exceptionally valuable) hundredth.

On the basis, of their crop capacity the soils of the District are divided into four categories, *viz*.,

1. Wheat land (*gohtaru*)
2. Rice land (*dhanhai*)
3. Garden land (*bari*), and
4. Inferior land (*mutfarikat*),

incapable of producing rice or wheat and not producing garden crops.

The soils have again been classified according to their position, the most important distinctions are between embanked and unembanked land; and three classes of embankment were recognised in wheat land, namely, *narbandh*, *bandhwa* and *tagar bandhia*. For rice land position classes are:—

1. *Jhilan* or lowlying land,
2. *Saman* or level land, and
3. *Tikra* or high lying land from the surface of which the water speedily disappears

Principal Crops

Jabalpur District is predominantly a *rabi* area Wheat crop is the agricultural staple. Other important crops are gram and linseed amongst the *rabi* crops, and paddy, jowar and til amongst the *kharif* crops.

Wheat.—The Narmada Valley which includes the Jabalpur District as well. forms the richest wheat tract in the State. The *Ain-i-Akbari* makes an eloquent mention of the wheat trade which was carried on with Gujrat and the Deccan from the wheat tract of the upper Narmada Valley. The expanses of fertile wheat lands are popularly known as *haveli* and cover the central and northern parts of Patan tahsil, north-western portion of Jabalpur tahsil and south-western part of Sihora tahsil, thus carving out a semi-circular fringe of land.

We read a graphic account of the different varieties of wheat, *viz*., Sikarhai, Kathia, Jalalia, Hansia, Mundiya, etc., in the old District Gazetteer of Jabalpur. They have now almost been ousted by the rust resistant varieties of Sharbati, *viz*., A 115 and Hy 8 11, 12, 19, 38, 65 and 277 introduced by the Agriculture Department. According to knowledgeable sources the old varieties are still grown on about a tenth of the present wheat area, particularly on account of their taste liked by some and their suitability for some special purposes, *viz*., preparation of *suji*, *daliya*, *siwain*, etc. However, they are consumed only locally.

Jabalpur District occupies the sixth place as a producer of wheat amongst the 43 districts of the State. In the year 1963-64 wheat was grown on an area of 366.0 thousand acres (148.1 thousand ha) as against the average of 348.8 thousand acres (141.1 thousand ha.) in the preceding five years.

Statistics show that the area under wheat is subject to wide fluctuations mainly on account of climatic factors and competition from other crops. Between 1873 and 1893 the area under wheat in Jabalpur District rose from a little over three lakh to nearly five lakh acres. Much of this increase was due to steady and genuine progress, but a great demand for Indian wheat suddenly arose when the granaries of the country were tapped by the railway. This resulted in a boom which not only induced men to sow wheat on soil of absolutely unsuitable quality, but also created a fever of speculation and competition for land.

Wheat, however, could not retain its position in the closing years of 19th century. "The falling off from the figures of 1891-92 indicates not a deterioration in agriculture but an improvement, as the increase in other crops and the limitation of wheat to land really suitable to it has increased the stability of agriculture."[1] This decline of wheat area indicated healthy decline in 'wheat obsession.' Wheat used to be sown even on land far better suited to *kharif* crops and the increased value of the latter in recent years induced a much more satisfactory crop scheme

In the years following the First World War the area under wheat rose gradually to 3.6 lakh acres in 1926-27. Thereafter a decline again set in. The diminution in area which set in from the year 1928-29 was caused by bad weather, *i.e.*, severe cold, frost, rust, and hail-storms, and marginal land going out of cultivation as a result of low prices. This created a feeling of insecurity and naturally, therefore, wheat was substituted by gram and masur. These crops are hardier, yield *bhusa* which is more nutritious and palatable to cattle and can find an easy export market The area further declined during 1940-41 to 1942-43 due to rust epidemic. Again during 1946-47 there was a devastating attack of rust From the year 1942-43 the impact of Second World War began to be felt and the prices recorded a steady rise To meet the situation the Grow More Food Campaign was launched, which resulted in increased acreage of wheat crop.

The output of wheat also fluctuates from year to year, principally on account of climatic factors During the year 1959-60 production had amounted to 100.9 thousand tons. This figure was reached or exceeded only in 1924-25, 1926-27, 1954-55 and 1956-57 during the 40 year period, 1919-20 to 1959-60. In 1963-64, the out-turn was 69.8

1. Season and Crop Report of C. P and Berar, 1922-23, p. 7

thousand tons. It is interesting to note that the normal production of wheat has been estimated at 88.1 thousand tons and the standard yield of wheat at 590 lbs. per acre.

There are two distinct methods of cultivation for embanked and unembanked fields. In the embanked fields, especially in the *haveli*, cultivation is neither so laborious nor expensive as in those fields which do not possess the same advantages. In such fields which fill well, only one harrowing is given just before the monsoon sets in. During the rains water is allowed to stand on the land upto the month of September when it is let out through the *moghai* which is either a sluice or a cut made in the embankment When the water has entirely drained away and the soil is sufficiently dry, one operation with the *nari* or seed plough is sufficient to complete the preparation of the field. Wheat is not weeded The cultivation of *tagar bandhis* and of unembanked land is a more laborious business. The general method is to plough twice, then to harrow and finally to sow with the *nari*. The period of sowing extends from 15th October to 30th November. The amount of seed varies with the soil; it is 120 lbs. per acre for *kabar* where the furrows are closer while 90 lbs. will suffice for an acre of *mund*.

Wheat is frequently sown mixed with gram where wheat is seldom rotated or manured . This mixture is known as *birra*. Common proportions are roughly 30 per cent of gram and 70 per cent of wheat in *kabar* soil, whereas in *mund* the proportion of gram may be 15 per cent. But there is no uniform practice regarding proportion which varies from -15 to 30 per cent. Undoubtedly, *birra* yields the best results on *kabar* Apart from the recuperative value of gram it is a form of insurance against total crop failure, for should the season prove unsuitable for wheat there is a chance that it may not be so for gram. Wheat and linseed form another mixture which is known as *gajra*. Wheat. linseed and tiura. or wheat, gram and tiura form other mixture, tiura being picked up when green and used as fodder.

The crop is reaped towards the middle of March. The crop is collected into bundles and allowed to dry for about a week on the threshing floor It is then threshed under bullocks' feet and winnowed.

Gram.—Gram is the second important *rabi* crop of the District. The most important types are (i) Deshi, and (ii) Gulabi Deshi gram is either Imalia (tamarind-coloured. *i.e.*, brownish) or Haldia (turmeric coloured or yellow). There are different intermediate shades in between these two colours. The colour of the seed coat

which is a factor so important in trade is rather a fancy point and it has been noticed that it varies not with the quality of the seed, but with the nature of the soil. Gulabi gram was introduced by the Department of Agriculture about 50 years ago. An improved strain of this gram under the name D—8 which was evolved by the Department 35 years ago has established itself firmly. It is rosy or pale red in colour and usually round in shape, though at times a few tapering ones are also noticed. This variety is most suited for parching purposes (*phutana* making) and has an all-India demand. Adt. 5 and EB. 28 are other improved strains evolved and distributed by the Department.

Gram is grown partly on good black soil as an alternative to wheat and partly on inferior black soil unfit for wheat. It is a favourable first crop on newly broken black soils especially if there is any *kans* left in it. Gram has special preference in times of scarcity of food and wheat-seed at the time of sowing. As it is comparatively cheaper, a measure of gram will keep under cultivation a larger area than an equal measure of wheat-seed. So, it has great advantage when it is necessary to avoid fallow and the consequent risk of spread of *kans*. It can be sown later with less labour in preparing the soil and is harvested earlier. It can be consumed when green and its shoots can be used as vegetable without harming the plant.

Area under gram has shown a definite upward trend over the last 70 years. Till the year 1893-94, the area was below 100 thousand acres. From 1894-95 to 1929—30 the area oscillated between 115 (1907-08) and 196.7 (1912-13) thousand acres. From the year 1930-31 gram area has, with the exception of few years, been about 200 thousand acres. Highest gram acreage was recorded in the year 1961-62 with 231.2 thousand acres (93.6 thousand ha.).

The method of cultivation is similar to that of wheat. Land is worked with a *bakhar* (blade harrow) or a country-plough once or twice during rains. Growers are generally not very particular about having as fine a seed-bed for gram as for wheat or linseed except for the Gulabi type. Gram is sown both broadcast and by *nari*. Gram is usually sown during the last week of September and first week of October, but if monsoon withdraws earlier it is sown earlier and if it continues late, sowing is also delayed. But in general, the sowing of pure gram precedes that of wheat and follows that of linseed. The seed-rate varies between 60 and 80 lbs. per acre. As noted earlier, gram is also sown as a mixture with wheat. The proportion of gram mainly depends upon the condition of the soil at sowing

time. In the years of short rainfall proportion of gram is increased. The less favourable the seed-bed is for wheat, the more gram is usually added to the mixture. For the triennium ending 1949-50, on an average gram was sown as a single crop in 112.4 thousand acres (45.5 thousand ha.), as mixture with wheat in 91.2 thousand acres. (36.9 thousand ha.) and as mixture with linseed in 3.2 thousand acres (1.3 thousand ha.).

The harvesting season lasts for about a month from 15th February to 15th March. The crop is harvested when almost dead ripe. It is either up-rooted or cut close to the ground with a sickle. When sown mixed with other crops, harvesting is done along with the main crop. The harvested produce is carried to the threshing floor where it is stacked and allowed to dry for some days. Threshing is done under the feet of bullocks. Threshed material is winnowed by allowing it to fall from a height of about 10 feet, when the wind is blowing. But in the absence of wind of a required velocity, the cultivators have to wait for a long time and there is a danger of the gram being spoiled by rain and hailstorm. The winnowing machines introduced by the Agriculture Department are getting popular. As threshing is done on the *kutcha* floor, the grain is found to contain particles of earth and at times dung also. Where the crop consists of *birra* there is a mixture of foreign grains, either wheat or linseed, even after it has been passed through sieves of different meshes. After the crop is winnowed, it is transported to the owner's home either on head or *kawar* loads or in carts, depending upon the quantity and distance to be covered. The grain may be stored loose in one corner of the cultivator's house if it is to be marketed before the commencement of the rainy season, or in receptacles, *i.e.*, bins made of mud or tur, or cotton stalks. When the quantity is more it is stored in *kothas* or *bandas*.

Normal annual out-turn of gram in the District has been estimated at 57.8 thousand tons. The year 1959-60 gave a record out-turn of 89.3 thousand tons. The year 1963-64 gave a yield of 56.0 thousand tons only. During the period 1934-35 to 1959-60 the lowest output was 24.9 thousand tons in 1941-42. The per acre yield of gram was 894 lbs. in 1959-60 and 563 lbs. in 1963-64, as against the standard of 510 lbs.

Linseed.—Linseed is an oilseed crop of first rate commercial importance. On account of its extensive and manifold uses, linseed is likely to remain in future also as one of the most important oil-seeds.

It is grown on almost every variety of soil except *sehra*. Its cultivation is attended with considerable risks and is considered

speculative. It is more susceptible to frost and rust than any other crop. If raised frequently on the same land it exhausts the fertility of the soil. From the cultivator's point of view it has the advantage that it requires lesser seed to sow in comparison to wheat.

There are two varieties of linseed. The seed of the white-flowered plant is a greyish white, that of the blue flowered variety is red. In commercial parlance the former is known as Howri and the latter as Kathi. A mixture of the two is called Chawalkathi. The white variety is richer in oil content than the brown one. The strains recommended by the Agriculture Department are N 3 and N 55. These are rust-resistant. The grains are thick and brown and fetch good price in the market.

This valuable crop is characterized by extraordinarily violent fluctuations of the area from year to year. In the year 1911-12, when all the factors conducive to expansion were in operation, the area reached its peak level, *i.e.*, 88.5 thousand acres, a record not surpassed so far. In the year 1918-19 when unfavourable factors combined, the area declined to 21.0 thousand acres. An example of a year in which the seasonal and price factors pulled in opposite directions is furnished by the area figures for 1920-21 when only 18.2 thousand acres were sown as compared with 49.4 thousand acres in 1919-20. From the year 1935-36 onwards, linseed acreage showed an upward trend on account of the fairly high price of linseed as a result of a bounty of 10 per cent on linseed imported into England under the Ottawa Agreement. Its cultivation also received impetus during the War due to the procurement price policy adopted by the Government in respect of wheat. Land was diverted from wheat to other crops including linseed.

Linseed is the earliest of the *rabi* crops, and is sown in the second half of September. Two systems of sowing this crop, *viz.*, *bota* and mixture are generally followed in the District. The most important mixture is linseed-gram, advantage in the mixture being that, besides the recuperative value of gram, it is a form of insurance against total crop failure. The land is *bakhared* once or twice in summer and as frequently as possible during the breaks in the rainy season. This crop requires a fine seed-bed. Seed is drilled by means of a country plough. It is often sown in rotation with wheat. Ten to fifteen lbs. of seed are sown per acre. Being poisonous to cattle, it is often sown as a protective border, around other crops. Harvesting of linseed commences from the middle of February and lasts till the end of March. The other operations are the same as in the case of gram.

During the year 1963-64 the total out-turn amounted to 3.6 thousand tons. The yield was 208 lbs. per acre as against the standard yield of 250 lbs.

Rice.—Rice is the most important *kharif* crop. It is raised mainly in Murwara and Sihora tahsils of the District. The cultivation of paddy is a real stabilizing factor in the agricultural economy of the District since its cultivation is more secure than that of *rabi* crops like wheat and gram. Rice falls under two main heads:

(i) Early, and (ii) Late. Names of the prominent varieties of each of them are given below.

Early Varieties

Niwari	...	Brown and flat.
Lakhowa	...	Red and long.
Basmatia	...	Brown, flat and small.
Ranikajar	...	Brown, black and pointed.
Kardhana	...	Black and long.
Saraia	...	Black husk and red grain.
Sikia	...	Brown and long.
Bakia	...	Brown smaller than Sikia
Kosam Khand	...	Brown and small.
Bhataphul	...	Black and flat.
Dhanadhan	...	Brown and round.
Bhagmuchh	...	Thin and long.

LATE VARIETIES

Antarbed	...	Red and long
Dilbaksha	...	Brown, round and thin grain.
Kadamphul	...	Red and small
Sironj	...	Brown and long
Somkiracha	...	Brown, thin and long grain
Harodgundi	...	Brown, a fine grain
Tulsibasa	...	Brown, long and fragrant.

The following improved strains of early, medium late, fine and fragrant varieties of paddy have also been evolved by the Department of Agriculture:

Name	Duration (Days)	Rice Quality
(1)	(2)	(3)
Early		
1. R. 2 Nungi (No. 17)	123	White/Medium
2. R. 3 Sultugurmatia	130	Do.
Medium		
1. R. 1 Surmatia . .	115	Do
2. Cross 166 (Bhondi X Parewa) . .	140	White/Coarse.
Late		
1. Cross 4 (Luchai X Budiabako)	155	White/Medium/Fine

Among the fine and fragrant varieties the following are recommended:

(1)	(2)	(3)
Medium		
1. R. 10 Chhatri	145	White/Fine/Fragrant
2. R 11 Dubraj..	147	Do.
3. R. 12 Banaspati	150	Do.
Late		
1. R. 14 Badshahbhog	162	Do.
2. R. 15 Chinnor	169	Do.

The area sown under paddy when viewed over the last 70 years shows a definite advance. At the 30 years' Settlement only 93 thousand acres were used for the cultivation of paddy. In 1891-92, the area was 183.0 thousand acres. During the period 1891-92 to 1935-36 the acreage was above 200 thousand acre mark only in 5 years. After that, the acreage has constantly been above that level. The acreage reached the record level of 285.4 thousand acres (115.4 thousand ha.) in 1962-63, the average for the five preceding years being 266.8 thousand acres (107.9 thousand ha.).

Rice lands are generally ploughed twice and harrowed once after the rains set in, though should there be rain in January or February, the industrious farmers take the opportunity of giving the soil a preliminary ploughing. The *jhura* or *boar* broadcast method of sowing is the most common. It involves the least labour and gives the poorest results. The *machawa* method is more complicated. The seed is soaked and then kept in a dark room until it germinates. After germination it is sown broadcast on a field expressly puddled to receive it. The *ropa* (transplantation) method involves greater trouble, but yields much better results. It is generally employed for the superior kinds of rice only. The area under transplanted paddy is insignificant, being only 13,985 acres (5,659 ha.) in 1963-64 as against 2,70,295 acres (1,09,384 ha.) under broadcast method. Only about a half of the transplanted paddy is irrigated.

A variant of the transplantation method, introduced from 1951, is known as 'Japanese method of paddy cultivation.' In short this may be called 'gardening of paddy'. Many cultivators have started this practice, but the area as at present is insignificant, being only four to five thousand acres. This system can be taken up strictly under irrigated conditions. The statistics given below will

show the wide variations in the usual seed-rate and yield per acre under the different methods of growing paddy:—

Method	Seed Rate Per Acre (In lbs.)	Yield Per Acre (In lbs.)
1. Broad-Cast	100	850
2. *Machaua*	60	1,000
3. Byasi	80	1,200
4. Transplantation	40	1,500
5. Japanese method	20	3,000

The fields are generally manured in early June and with the advent of the rains sowing begins and lasts till the middle of August. Ample and well-distributed rainfall is a necessity. Water is not allowed to stand on rice fields until the end of August when the *moghas* or cuts in the embankments are closed and an endeavour made to keep the water in the fields at a constant depth of about a foot. The harvest is reaped from October until the middle of November.

As regards production, the highest record was established in 1961-62 when an out-turn of 102.2 thousand tons was obtained against the average of 50.1 thousand tons recorded during the preceding five years. The standard yields of broadcast and transplanted rice (unirrigated) were estimated to be 579 and 1,014 lbs. per acre respectively for the year 1963-64. The standard yield was higher for irrigated rice being 1,034 and 1,119 lbs per acre, respectively.

Jowar.—Jowar is the next important *kharif* crop of the District. Jowar is grown in the riverain area of the Narmada and Hiran, known as the *kauthar*, fringing the black soil plain of the *haveli* and on the slopes of the north-east drained by the Mahanadi and the Umar. Jowar covered 34.5 thousand acres (13.9 thousand ha.) in 1963-64. There are nine indigenous varieties of jowar, *viz*., (i) Badra, (ii) Jhura, (iii) Safed, (iv) Suwar Gorda, (v) Dudmogra (vi) Dudhina, (vii) Hatipao, (viii) Chitri and (ix) Ghinsia. Now two new varieties, Seoner and Ramkel, have been evolved and introduced by the Department. The former needs heavier soil which can retain moisture for longer periods. Its grain is yellow in colour. Ramkel is a favourite with animals. It is used for purposes of fodder. The grain is very small and white in colour. It is harvested earlier than Seoner and can we grown on lighter soils.

Jowar requires a well-drained soil thriving best in sandy loams. The field is *bakhared* twice before and once after the rains break. The seed is then sown and the land again *bakhared*. If the land be *kans*-infested or covered with weeds, it should be ploughed once or twice before the seeds are sown. The crop needs to be weeded in August and some times requires a subsequent weeding. Sowing operations of jowar are undertaken in the beginning of July and the harvesting takes place in November and December. The amount of seed sown varies from five to eight lbs. for seed purposes and 20 to 25 lbs. per acre for fodder. *Rabi* jowar or *ringini* has also been introduced in the District. It is sown in October at the rate of 12 lbs. per acre and gives an average yield of 600 lbs. per acre.

The year 1959-60 witnessed a record out-turn of 14.1 thousand tons. The next highest out-turn of 13.14 thousand tons was raised in 1960-61. The lowest figure, *i.e.*, 3.3 thousand tons was touched in 1950-51 during the 30 year period 1930-31 to 1959-60. Due to record production an yield of 860 lbs. per acre was reached in 1959-60 as against the standard yield of 520 lbs. per acre. However, production amounted to 10,965 tons in 1963-64.

Til.—Area and production figures of til conclusively show that til is now not the same important crop as it used to be. From the year 1938-39 til has declined almost continuously in area and out-turn. Til is mostly a *kharif* crop though it was also raised as a *rabi* crop on 40 acres (16 ha.) as against 17,272 acres (6,989 ha.) under *kharif* crop in 1963-64.

Five indigenous varieties of til are grown in Jabalpur District :

Kharif

1. White large seed.
2. White small seed.
3. Red.
4. Black.

Rabi

5. Maghai or Magheli (dark brown seed).

White til fetches the highest price and black the lowest.

Til is not grown on embanked fields, and it does not require much moisture. The land is well ploughed and *bakhared* before

sowing. Even on the poorest classes of soil, broken up from a fallow of five to six years, a handsome out-turn is obtained from the crop. After the seed is put in the ground the *bakhar* is inverted and run over the ground to press the seed home. This process is called *pahta*. The crop seldom requires weeding though the usual *kharif* weeds such as *duba, kans, agia, gumni,* and *chunwaiya* are found with the crop. The *kharif* varieties of til are sown in the month of June and July and cut in November. The *rabi* varieties are sown in August and upto the middle of September, and harvested in December and January. Til is neither manured nor irrigated. The amount of seed is about three to six lbs. per acre.

Til occupied an area of 17.3 thousand acres (7 thousand ha.) in 1963-64. The highest acreage was established in the year 1903-1904 when 69.00 thousand acres were under til. The lowest acreage of 11.3 thousand acres was recorded in 1949-50. So far til has not been able to recover its level of 1937-38 and 1938-39. The District output of til has similarly been low. The year 1963-64 gave an output of 667 tons.

Masur.—Masur covered an area of 40,000 acres in 1912. The area under masur was 56,906 acres (22,704 ha.) in 1963-64. Only one variety is sown. The red masur is grown on low lying land or in embanked fields and is often found as a second crop after rice. The amount of seed grain required per acre is about 20 to 30 lbs. The standard yield is 400 lbs. per acre. Masur is sown both by means of the *nari* and broadcast. The *utera* or *chhitka* method of sowing is sometimes employed. In the case of fields where the rice crop is a late one masur is sown broadcast while the rice is still standing. Masur in embanked lands frequently suffers from the attacks of frost.

Tur.—This crop now normally covers an area of 21,300 acres (8,619 ha.). However, during the year 1963-64 the area was 22,037 acres (8,918 ha.). It is generally sown with jowar, til and cotton. The area 50 years ago was only 5,500 acres. Sowing is done in June and July and harvesting takes place in February. Generally red variety is sown with about five or six lbs. of seed per acre. The variety being a late ripening one it occasionally suffers from frost, especially in low lying fields. Two varieties No. 148 (red) and Cross No. 86 have been recommended. They ripen early and the yield is also good. The standard yield of tur per acre in the District is 1,290 lbs. The production amounted to 8.7 thousand tons in 1963-64.

Maize.—Maize is a popular garden crop and normally covers about 14,500 acres (5,873 ha.). About 50 years ago 9.000 acres were recorded under maize. The seed rate and yield are as under:

Seed Rate per Acre		Yield per Acre
(1) Grain	10-12 lbs.	500 lbs.
(2) Fodder	25 lbs.	6 Tons.

It is sown in June and reaped in September and October. The seed is sown broadcast on the *bari*, which is always close to houses and well-manured. The total output of maize in the District in 1963-64 was 7,310 tons.

Kodon.—*Kodon* and *kutki* are consumed mainly by the poorer section of the society. Kodon is one of the staple crops of the District and covered an area of 69.325 acres (28,054 ha.) in 1963-64 which is less by 1,25.000 acres (50.585 ha.) than that of 1905. Kodon has given place to paddy which is now grown on more suitable lands. Kodon is a strong, virile millet requiring neither irrigation nor manure. The crop is grown on almost every kind of soil and in favourable years it yields remarkable out-turns. Sometimes the out-turn varies from 70 to 80 times the seed. The following varieties are found:—(1) Bisbaria, (2) Luna, (3) Basin, and (4) Ledri. The first two varieties have a large grain and are called Kodon, the last two which have a smaller grain are called Kotch. The quantity of seed grain required per acre is 10 to 15 lbs. The field is generally *bakhared* twice before kodon is sown. Sowings are made in June and July and the harvest is gathered in November and December. The yield is 400 to 500 lbs. per acre. The weed called *agia* is a great enemy to this crop.

Kutki.—This crop covered an area of 18,670 acres (7,464 ha.) in 1963-64 in this District. It was not extensively grown about 50 years ago. Its grain is only about one quarter the size of kodon, which crop it closely resembles. Kutki is generally sown on land which has been broken up from fallow and ploughed four or five times. Sowings are made in August and the crop is reaped in November. About 10 to 15 lbs. of seed grains are required per acre. This millet will not thrive on the poorest soils as kodon does. The improved varieties are No. 39, 45 and 8. The average yield per acre is 350 lbs.

During the year 1963-64, the combined total out-turn of both kodon and kutki was 8·6 thousand tons and the standard yield per acre was 190 lbs. of cleaned kodo-kutki.

Singhara.—This crop covered only an area of 230 acres 50 years ago, but now it is spared over more than 2,500 acres (1,013 ha.). Singhara is an aquatic plant and grown in water. It is grown in tanks where the depth of water does not exceed 10 to 12 feet during rainy season.

Selected ripened singhara is used for seed purposes. About 20 lbs. of seed is required to grow vines in one acre. The seed is kept wet for 10 to 15 days and is then sown immediately. Sowing is done in water at 2 ft. to 3 ft. depth immediately after previous harvest. This depth of water is maintained till the onset of monsoon. Transplantation is done 10 to 15 days before the onset of monsoon. The tillers are planted at intervals of 5 ft. x 5 ft. About four to five tillers are tied together and transplantation done by using a bamboo pole or acrobar for pressing the roots. In case depth is more a stone is tied to the roots and tillers dipped. As soon as roots come in contact with soil, they establish within 24 hours. In case of too much vegetative growth, pruning is done. Singhara beetle is a deadly enemy of this plant and as such it is either destroyed by picking and killing or by dusting BHC 5 per cent at the rate of 15 to 25 lbs. per acre. Harvesting is done in November-December with three or four pickings. Raw singhara is either boiled or sold as such in the market for immediate consumption. Ripe decorticated singhara, after drying it for 20 to 25 days, is locally known as *gotti*. It gives an average yield of 12 to 16 mds. per acre. The flour of dry singhara is used by Hindus on fast days in many preparations. No manuring is required. Jabalpur District is the largest exporter of *gotti* in the whole of Madhya Pradesh.

Sugarcane—Sugarcane cultivation has declined considerably in importance now. Sugarcane which claimed 3,496 acres in 1868 was grown only in 1,420 acres (574 ha.) in 1963-64. There is ample scope for extension of cane cultivation provided sufficient irrigation is made available. Sugarcane development scheme has also been started in the District from the year 1959-60.

Cotton.—Cotton is grown almost exclusively in the *kanthar* tracts of Jabalpur and Sihora tahsils and is generally found mixed with tur. The crop is much damaged by heavy rains in October

as the saying goes, *barse swati, sant bisant chalena rehta baje na tant* (October rain leaves the spinners wheel idle). Cotton, during the last 50 years, declind from 12,000 to bare 9 acres (4 ha). The reasons are stated to be the increase in average rainfall and difficulty in getting sufficient labour on account of bidi industry.

The area and out-turn of some minor crops during the year 1963-64 are detailed below.

	Area		Out-Turn
	(Acres)	(ha.)	(Tons)
Black Gram (Urd)	14,530	5,900	1,315
Peas	11,102	4,493	1,110
Ramtil	12,606	5,101	N. A.
Rape and Mustard	8,552	3,461	1,110

Horticulture

An area of 17,230 acres (6,972 ha.) was under different fruits and vegetables in the year 1963-64. Prominent crops were the following:—

Fruits	Area	
	(Acres)	(ha.)
Guava	634	256
Banana	6	2
Orange	61	25
Mango	6,727	2,722
Others	3,463	1,401
Vegetables		
Potato	2,126	860
Sweet Potato	678	274
Onion	330	133
Others	3,202	1,294

Fruit production has developed considerably. Area under fruits was 10,894 acres (4,408 ha.) in 1963-64 as against an average of 9,162 acres (3,707 ha.) over the previous five years.

Mango is the principal fruit of the District. It has been recorded in the Gazetteer that, "The district is exceptionally well-off in the matter of mango groves."[1]

Improved potato seeds are distributed both on cash and Taccavi. To meet the demands of cultivators for vegetable seeds and seedlings nurseries are raised on almost all government farms. Vegetable seeds are also procured from Silari Government Farm and firms of established reputation. They are sold on no profit and no loss basis. Increasing urban population has made vegetable farming a very profitable profession for the cultivator in the vicinity of cities.

There is great scope for the development of orchards. With the extension of irrigation facilities area under orchards is likely to increase. Under a scheme for the development of new orchards and rejuvenation of old orchards, assistance both in cash and kind is extended.

Besides the above, in 1963-64, 2,048 acres (828 ha.) were under condiments and spices which included chillies, 758 (305 ha.) ginger, 59 (23 ha.) garlic, 67 (27 ha.) and turmeric, 25 (10 ha.).

Agricultural Implements

The plough, *i.e.*, *hal* or *nagar* is the principal agricultural implement which is used for the preparation of land. It is made of *babul* or *khair* wood fixed with a share made of mild steel. The body and handle are made in one piece and the shoe separate. The average depth is five to six inches and width eight to nine inches The beam of the implement is attached to the yoke by means of a in light soils. The draft varies from 125 to 200 lbs. in light soils. The beam of the implement is attached to the yoke by means of a rope. It is manufactured and repaired locally. It weighs 45 to 55 lbs. It serves for a period of two to four years and Re. 0.25 to 1.00 is spent annually on its maintenance. It ploughs about half an acre a day, the cost of operation per acre being Rs. 10 to Rs. 20. This implement is used universally. The harrow is sometimes entirely of wood, sometimes of wood and iron and is called *bakhar*.

Ridger is another land preparation implement. It is an ordinary *desi* plough with a ridging attachment fixed at the junction of the shoe and body below the beam. The work done by this implement is of poor quality and the ridges made by it have to be mended annually. Hitching arrangement is similar to that of a plough. It is used for making ridges for sugarcane and vegetables in the seasons. It is manufactured by the village artisans with wood and weighs

1. Jubbulpore District Gazetteer, p. 174.

40 lbs. with attachment. The cost varies from Rs. 11 to Rs. 16. The service life is usually one to three years with annual maintenance charges of Rs. 2 to Rs. 2.50. It covers two acres per day at a cost of Rs. 2 per acre. It is owned by all the farmers.

Nari is a plough which leaves the seed in the furrow by means of a hollow bamboo into which the grain is passed, a boy filling a broad wooden cup placed at the top of the bamboo as the plough progresses, and it is driven by man. While working, the beam of the drill is tied to the yoke with ropes. It is used for line sowing of *rabi* crops, such as wheat, gram, sarson and linseed. Sometimes the seeds fail to pass through the bamboo which becomes clogged and the furrow remains unsown for some distance. The implement weighs upto 60 lbs. Two bullocks and two persons are required to work it. The cost varies from Rs. 8 to Rs 18. It sows one to two acres per day, the cost of operation being Rs. 5 to Rs 6 per acre.

Patha is an implement meant for crushing clods and planking after ploughing. It is not a separate implement by itself. It is a *datari* or puddler inverted so that the peg side is up and the smooth side moves along the surface of the soil. The implement is connectd to the yoke by means of a beam as in the plough and is driven by two bullocks. *Babul, tendu, tinsa* or *sagwan* wood is used for making *patha*. It weighs about 68 lbs. and costs Rs. 4 to Rs. 6. The span of service-life is three to four years. It can work four acres a day at a cost of one rupee per acre.

Iron ploughs are also used by a small proportion of the farmers, *i.e.*, about five to eight per cent. They were previously manufactured and imported from England. Now Kirloskar Bros., Agricultural Institute, Naini, and Cossul and Company Kanpur, are supplying the same. The weight is about 95 lbs. and the cost varies between Rs. 70 and Rs. 100. They can be used for a maximum period of 10 years. Annual maintenance charges are quite heavy. A big drawback with them is that they cannot be repaired locally.

The other implements still in use are the *khurpi*, the indigenous hoe for weeding, the *hansia* or sickle for reaping and the *tokni* or the winnowing basket.

For raising the yield of crops absence of efficient implements is keenly felt. The Department of Agriculture is quite aware of this and has been engaged in evolving improved implements which have come into use to varying extent. An Implement Depot was opened at Adhartal Farm for supplying iron ploughs and spare

parts manufactured by Kirloskar Bros. Some imported implements were also kept in stock. The work of popularising the implements perfected in Great Britain started in the year 1918 after the First World War From the year 1929-30 onwards iron sugarcane crushers, iron Persian wheels, oil-engines and pumps, winnowing machines prepared at Hoshangabad and fodder-cutters also came to be introduced. Seed drill was introduced in the year 1936-37. The use of these improved implements was limited to certain zamindaris where they were made available by the Court of Wards. For the last five or six years *doffan* and *tiffan* are also coming into use. After the Second World War use of these implements began to gain popularity with the well-to-do and progressive farmers. Tractor ploughing started round about the year 1940. More tractors came into use after the Second World War.

According to the Ninth Quinquennial Livestock Census conducted in April 1961, the number of implements in use in the District was as below:

Ploughs: Wooden	127,724
Iron	492
Carts	20,270
Sugarcane crushers worked by:	
Bullocks	185
Power	22
Oil Engines with pumps for irrigation purposes	61
Electric Pumps for irrigation	165
Oil-engines for other purposes	43
Persian wheels	86
Motes	2,406
Tractors: Government	30
Private	55
Ghanis	
5 srs. and over	36
Less than 5 srs.	708

The number of ploughs at the 30 years' Settlement was 45,364. The number rose to 75,206 in 1891-92 and to 77,625 in 1911-12. In the latter year one plough was available for 13 acres of net area sown in the District. In 1912-13, the number of ploughs recorded was 82,765 and by 1926-27 it increased to 88,248, the average sown area per plough being 12 acres (4·9 ha.) and 11 acres (4·5 ha.), respectively. In the year 1927-28 the number of ploughs was 91,210 which rose to 95,529 in 1941-42. The area sown per plough worked out to 10 acres (4·1 ha.) in both the years. In 1960-61 when 128,216 ploughs were enumerated one plough on an average cultivated 8 acres (3·2 ha.).

The indigenous implements are very popular with the cultivators and they are still preferred by a majority of them as they can be made and repaired locally in the villages and are also cheap. They do not turn the subsoil and, as such, its structure is not disturbed and they can be easily worked under village conditions. However, the prevailing labour conditions and high prices of draught-animals are forcing the big land-holders to go in for mechanisation, but the scarcity of good workshops is coming in the way.

Seed

The results of experiments carried out on various government farms show that the increase resulting from the use of improved seed would range between 5 and 10 per cent. Attempts have, therefore, been made for evolving improved strains of seed which would yield more and resist the various diseases that attack them. Simultaneously steps have been taken to multiply the improved varieties of seed and to popularise them.

Rust is the bane to agriculture in the District. It is not a menace to the wheat growers of Jabalpur only; this scourge has plundered the wheat lands of the world. Frequent visitations and devastations brought by this epidemic underlined the imperative need for evolving a seed which had the quality of immunity from rust. Moreover, such a variety should have the general properties of high yield and greater nutritive value. The search for strain with these qualities led to the Sharbati wheats—a term applied collectively to a number of Departmental wheats known as A 115, A 113 and A 112 which are selections obtained from a cross-bred wheat. The rust attack of 1927-28 and frost-cum-rust in 1928-29 led to the replacement of Pissi by Sharbati. However, with the fall in exports, Sharbati which commanded a premium for export, suffered a set-back and the agriculturists tended to revert to Pissi. Notwithstanding this, efforts to popularise Sharbati, specially A 115, continued.

From 1941 further researches at Powarkheda Farm, Hoshangabad, were directed towards breeding strains resistant to black stem rust and suitable for black soil areas. After experimenting with Indian and exotic rust-resistant strains hybrids were evolved which have shown promising results. Among these Hy 8, 11, 12, 19, 38, 65 and 277 have been introduced by the Department as stated earlier.

New and improved strains, mentioned earlier, have also been evolved and recommended in case of some other crops. Improved seeds produced on government farms are insufficient to meet the growing demand and they have to be further multiplied in successive

stages through the agency of registered growers of which there are three classes: A, B and C. The registered A class growers are required to multiply the foundation-seed received by them under the supervision of Agriculture Department and sell to the Department only a small part of the produce so multiplied. They are supplied seed at market rates, free of transport cost, and paid a premium of Rs. 2 per maund on the stock sold to the Department. The seeds procured from the registered A class growers, which are progeny of the foundation-seed, are supplied to the registered B class seed-growers who are also bound by the conditions similar to those imposed on A class registered growers by the Department. The seeds procured from the registered B class growers are then distributed among the C class registered growers at the prevailing market rates. The seed is not procured from C class growers as in the last stage the purity of the seed becomes diluted to some extent.

Like other districts, Jabalpur has tried from time to time several agencies for securing wide and efficient distribution of improved seed. In the beginning the government seed and demonstration farms distributed seed among the farmers. Later private demonstration plots and seed-farms entered the field Most of the seed-farms in Jabalpur District worked on a co-operative basis and charged the members 25 per cent interest on the seed taken by them. The co-operative organisations floated this deal In 1914-15 the Evans Seed Supply' which was connected with the Crosthwaite Central Bank issued as much as 2,656 maund of first class selected seed to members of co-operative societies. By 1923-24 several co-operative credit societies which had been in the seed business fairly long obtained loans from the Central Bank and maintained stocks of seed. Seed was distributed among members at sowing time and after the harvest the amount of seed borrowed was returned together with 25 per cent *barhi* There was a considerable number of seed-unions also in the District In 1923-24 the Sihora Agricultural Association conducted a seed-store on the *barhi* system and sub-associations at Balkheda and Panagar also supplied seed on the *sawaibarhi* system.

In 1926-27 the P-Barhi scheme was introduced. The scheme aimed at the distribution of pure wheat seed at easy rates of interest through the agency of Tahsil Agricultural Associations and similar organisations. The loans in the form of seed grain were advanced under the Agriculturists' Loans Act to the Associations whose members accepted joint responsibility at 20 per cent *barhi* One-half of

this went towards the payment of interest and the other half towards repayment of the principal. This was expected to lead to the principal being paid back in 10 years leaving the Association in full ownership of the stock originally borrowed. Unfortunately this system collapsed during 1935-36.

Towards the close of the 'twenties there were a few small cultivators' self-help seed unions whose original stock was contributed by members and which issued seed for sowing on *sawai* basis. Some '*panchayat kothis*' were also organised. Under this scheme seed was collected at harvest time for distribution at sowing time on the *barhi* basis. During the year 1946-47 a Pilot Wheat Seed Distribution Scheme was introduced for multiplication and distribution of rust-tolerant wheat strains, *viz*., A 115. AO 90, NP 52 and NP 101. Similarly, a Paddy Seed Distribution Scheme was initiated in 1946-47, financed wholly by the State Government, which covered the whole District. Seed centres were organised and paddy Nos. 7, 12 and EB 17, Sultugurmatia and Chhatri were propagated

With a view to building a sizable reserve of wheat seed, the 'Wheat Seed Reserve Scheme' was started during 1947-48. Rust-tolerant varieties of wheat seed were obtained from the cultivators partly on cash and partly on exchange basis, and distribted among cultivators on the condition that they would return at harvest time 2½ times the seed supplied to them.

Rotation of Crops

A judicious system of rotation of crops has an important place in better farming. However, in several cases the cultivator little realises that raising the same crop on the same soil year after year is likely to impoverish the soil and reduce the yield. Sometimes he does so because the short-period gain to him is important or too substantial to be overlooked.

In Jabalpur District there is no particular system of rotation of crops. Generally, sowing a mixed crop, *e.g.*, wheat with gram is considered sufficient to achieve the objective of maintaining fertility. Generally, where they have a rotation, wheat is grown after gram, masur or teora. As the plants of the pea family possess the well-known property of absorbing nitrogen from the atmosphere, the same fields which used to bear rice and wheat from year to year are brought under pulses sometimes. Good cultivators will not sow kodon for more than two years in succession in the same field, but will change to til or, if possible, to one of the *kharif* pulses.

The following system of rotation has been advocated by the Agriculture Department:

Soil	Unirrigated	Irrigated
Black heavy soil of haveli	Wheat Gram	Wheat, Wheat-Gram Leguminous Intensive
Lighter soils	Wheat, Gram Oilseeds, Legumes	Cereals, Legumes and Vegetable
Garden land	..	Vegetable-Sugar-cane, Fruit trees inter-cropped with cash crops.

The results of rotational and residual effect experiments in *haveli* tract (Kheri section of Adhartal farm) have shown that three course rotation of *bira*, wheat and gram gave the highest yield, followed by the two course rotation of *birra*-wheat on Powerkheda Farm. The rotation of wheat and tur appeared to be the most remunerative followed by wheat-gram rotation.

Yet another method of helping the land to recoup its fertility is to rest the land for a season or two. In this District, cultivators of black soil in the *haveli* rarely allow the land to fallow since this would allow the *kans* to spread. Of course all land appearing as fallow land is not wholly represented by resting fallows There may be other reasons also, *viz*., negligence, lack of resources with the farmer, disputes over land unremunerative farming and insufficiency of water The soils termed *patarua* and *bhatua* which are extremely poor require resting fallows for three and five years, respectively, but the requisite treatment is not always afforded. In recent years the area of fallow lands has tended to decline.

Manures and Fertilizers

The utility of manuring has now been well established through experiments conducted on various government farms in the State which showed that manuring on an average in normal seasons gave 22, 14 and 25 per cent increased yields in case of rice, wheat and jowar, respectively.

Among the manures in use the more common are farm-yard-manure, compost and green manure. The droppings of animals also benefit the land. Canal and tank silt is occasionally used. Land

however, in the District is not benefited by rivers which flow in deep beds. Actual demonstration has shown the advantages obtainable from the application of artificial fertilizers to land and, as a result, the popularity of artificial fertilizers, such as ammonium sulphate, superphosphate, etc., has increased sharply in recent years. Sullage from the city of Jabalpur is widely used.

Government is keen to develop the potentialities of locally available manurial resources and has, therefore, laid stress on composting of night soil and refuse, dung, cattle-urine, etc. The Agriculture Department supervises composting operations. In rural areas practical demonstrations in systematic composting are given and its advantages explained. The method of the preparation of urine-earth is also explained and demonstrated to the cultivators. This scheme has attracted the attention of the cultivators. Janpad Sabhas and Gram Panchayats also have taken interest in the working of this scheme. However, much remains to be done to persuade the cultivators to conserve and use the natural manures at their disposal. Cowdung is still used as fuel.

Cultivators appear to be reluctant to use and handle bone-meal manure. Artificial fertilizers first came to be used in the District in the year 1929, when demonstrations on the vegetable and sugarcane plots served to establish the effectiveness of artificial fertilizers. Similarly, small plot demonstrations were organised on the lands of cultivators. The Indian Council of Agricultural Research has also sanctioned a scheme of Free Fertilizer Demonstration. Fertilizers, however, have been introduced on a big scale in the District from the year 1951. Progressive cultivators have realised that the remedy for the malaise of low productivity of agriculture lies in the use of fertilizers. Attempts have been made to secure for the cultivator extensive credit facilities for the purchase of fertilizers and fertilizer promotion campaigns organised. The scheme for distribution of fertilizers came to be entrusted to the M. P. Co-operative Marketing Society sometime in 1954 and it is the sole supplier of this commodity to the sub-distributor at the district level.

With increasing use of artificial fertilizers the need for greater attention to the use of organic manures was realized. Requisite quantities of organic manures are essential for maintaining soil texture. Since farm-yard manure is not available in sufficient quantity, green manuring seeds, *viz.*, sunn, dhaincha and moong are distributed to cultivators on subsidy basis. After one-and-half month of sowing these are ploughed into the fields. This adds about 4,000 to 5,000

lbs. of green matter per acre. Green manuring is becoming quite popular. It has ousted the use of leaves, trash and other wastes in their original forms.

Pests and Diseases

Crops in Jabalpur District are damaged by pests and diseases as anywhere else. The damage varies according to the intensity of the pest or disease. Very often one or the other insect pest or disease is present in the field and does not attract attention till it has sufficiently grown in intensity. The farmer who till recently accepted them without much of a fight as sheer misfortune is now more determined to overcome them.

Among the diseases, rust is the principal one. It has sometimes caused widespread failure of crops. Rust is by no means a modern occurrence. Sleeman, in 1839, speaking of rust in the Central Provinces, wrote, "I have seen rich sheets of uninterrupted wheat cultivation for twenty miles by ten in the valley of the Narbudda so entirely destroyed by this disease that the people would not go to the cost of gathering one field in four", and further, " I believe that the total amount of wheat gathered in the harvest of 1827 in the district of Jubbulpore was not equal to the total quantity of seed that had been sown."[1] The year 1894-95 was the great rust year, when the out-turn of wheat was reduced to 23 per cent of the normal and linseed was entirely wiped out. In recent years rust epidemic occurred in 1928-29 and 1946-47 on a scale not known in living memory and the wheat area in the next year was one of the leanest on record. Other victims of rust are gram and linseed. The most crucial period in the growth of wheat is January, February and March, not only because rust is caused by damp and cloudy cold weather during this period, but also because it has maximum effect on the growth of wheat plants.

One of the diseases of rice plants is blast or *pansokh* (*Piricularia oryzae* Cav.). As a result of this disease plants are stunted tillering is less, leaves short and less in number and the ears are dwarfed. Gram is liable to wilt (*Fusarium orthoceras* Var) An attack of wilt causes the plant to turn prematurely yellow and to wither away.

Linseed is attacked by a variety of rust called *Melampsora* Lini. Smut or *kundia* is another desease affecting wheat, but it causes much less damage than rust.

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1 A Howard and G. Howard, Wheat in India, p 90

With a view to saving the crops from the ravages of various diseases, improved agricultural practices, disease resistant varieties of seeds and chemical treatment of seed before sowing are generally practised in varying degrees.

The crops are attacked and damaged by a number of pests, *viz.*, caterpillars, white-ants, flies and bugs. Some of them are minor while others do considerable damage. The following are some of the pests observed in the District:

Crop	Pest
1. Wheat	Stem borer (*Sesamia inferens*, Wlk.), White-ants or termites *Microtermes* Sp.), Jassids.
2. Gram	Gram caterpillar (*Heliothis armigera* Fb.)
3. Jowar	Jowar stem borer (*Chilo zonellus* Swn.)
4. Paddy	Rice grass-hopper (*Hieroglyphus banian* Fb.) *Maho* (*Nepho tettix bipunctatus*).
5. Tur	Tur plume moth (*Exelastis atomosa* Wlsm.), Tur bug (*Clavigralla* Spp.)
6. Linseed .	Linseed gall-fly (*Dasyneura lini* Barnes.), Linseed caterpillar (*Laphygma exigua* Fb)
7. Singhara .	Singhara beetle (*Gallerucella birmanica* Jacoby.)

There are some common practices in vogue for controlling the pests, *viz.*, clean cultivation, charging irrigation water with crude-oil emulsion, resort to field bags, setting up attractants and light-traps and using *gur*, *rab*-bait, sticky-bands and tobacco decoction. With a view to exterminating these pests such measures as deep ploughing of infected fields, collection and burning of stubbles and destruction of dead hearts are resorted to. Chemical treatment, *viz.*, spraying the crop with B. H. C. dust, aldrin, or D.D.T. has also come into vogue.

With the advance of agricultural science it is now possible to protect the crops against numerous pests and diseases at a low cost. It has been realised that not only should the regional problems of

agriculture be tackled in experimental farms but the solutions should also be carried to the farms of the cultivators for being translated into practice. Therefore, Government has organised and stimulated a number of activities such as research, education, extension, demonstration and propaganda. With a view to extending the benefits of the researches made in the Entomology and Mycology Section of the State Department of Agriculture, a Plant Protection Scheme was started in the District from December, 1949. The Zonal Office for Wheat Zone is also located at Jabalpur The work is under the control of the District Agricultural Officer at the District level. He is assisted by Agricultural Assistants at the tahsil level with Demonstration Jamadars for field work.

District Agriculture Office.—The office of the District Agricultural Officer (then known as Extra-Assistant Director of Agriculture), was opened in the District in the year 1918-19. Since its inception it has made efforts to introduce improved seeds, implements and fertilizers. The Department has popularised better methods of cultivation, *viz*., line-sowing, transplantation and seed treatment. Use of insecticides and fungicides has been made known The extension agency consisting of Agricultural Assistants, Demonstration Kamdars and Gram Sewaks, does this work by means of demonstration plots, lectures, shows and exhibitions, fairs and crop competitions For the improvement of agriculture, inducements have been provided to the cultivators by giving concessions and subsidies in the loans granted under the Agriculturists' Loans Act and Land Improvement Loans Act. Thus the Department has been engaged in introducing changes on the agricultural front by acquainting the farmer with the achievements of the science of agriculture and enlisting his support and participation. It is not easy to assess the results achieved in terms of increase in output per acre. However, the greater awareness of the cultivator and his willingness to participate in the process of change are significant gains.

Training and Research—In the year 1912 Government established an Experimental Farm extending over 115 acres (47 ha) at Adhartal, situated at a distance of four miles (6 Km.) from Jabalpur Railway Station at an altitude of 1351 ft. The place has an average rainfall of 56 inches, and light sandy loam and heavy clayey loam. Its area now covers 746 acres (302 ha) scattered over five places, the fields being commanded by the Jabalpur irrigation tank. Its aim was to conduct agronomic research on gram, wheat, paddy, sugarcane, linseed peas and miscellaneous crops Another object of the Farm was largely to experiment in and subsequently to demonstrate the economical use of the tank water.

The Farm has succeeded admirably in its objects and excited much interest amongst the farmers of the District. At one time short practical courses for *kharif* and *rabi* crops were imparted here to the Kamdars who, after the completion of their training, were posted to manage demonstration plots. It serves as a training ground for the students of the Agriculture College, Jabalpur, and is also utilized for field research work and seed multiplication.

The State Agriculture Research Station of old Madhya Pradesh was allocated to Bombay State and there was no such institution in the new State. It was, therefore, essential to establish a State Agricultural Research Institute for co-ordinating agricultural research work for obtaining results of practical utility expeditiously and making this available to cultivators through the extension service. This Farm now serves as the State Agricultural Research Institute. An amount of Rs. 20.00 lakhs has been provided in the Third Five Year Plan for this purpose.

In 1954 a Basic Agricultural School was started at Adhartal, Jabalpur with the object of training Gram Sewaks for manning the Development Blocks of the State. The subjects taught in this Institution were Agriculture, Veterinary, Public Health and Agricultural Engineering. The School was closed on March 31, 1959 and has now been developed into Reorientation Centre for Central Region for the training of Block Development Officers. The new Institution started functioning from October 1959.

A College of Agriculture was established in July, 1955. Now, since December, 1964, the Jawaharlal Nehru Krishi Vishwavidyalaya* has come into existence at Jabalpur and all the Agricultural Colleges of the State have been affiliated to this University. The Research Wing of Agriculture Department has also been transferred to the Vishwavidyalaya.

The Government of India introduced a Soil-Testing Service for the benefit of cultivators. Under this scheme a soil-testing laboratory was set up at Jabalpur in February, 1958. The Laboratory examines soil samples sent by cultivators and advises them on the requirements of manures and fertilizers for obtaining increased crop yields. This also enables them to make judicious use of manures and fertilizers.

A Seed Testing Laboratory has been working at Jabalpur since the year 1965.

*For details see Chapter on Education and Culture.

An Agricultural Engineering Workshop has also been located at Jabalpur since the year 1961. The site is near the Government Experimental Farm, Adhartal.

Demonstration and Propaganda

The purpose of all demonstration work is to make it easy for the cultivators to introduce improvements in their farming practices as recommended by the Department. With this end in view, the Department of Agriculture has attempted since the beginning of this century to awaken intelligent interest in agriculture, generally by published literature, such as agricultural readers, bulletins, pamphlets, etc., and speeches amongst the literate farmers, and by actual demonstration which has the greatest appeal to the illiterate farmers as it easily carried conviction to all alike. Paucity of extension staff has been a great handicap in the past. However, at present there are 12 Agricultural Assistants working in this District. Agricultural Extension Officers attached to the Development Blocks attend to the field work in which they are assisted by Gram Sewaks. The Agricultural Assistants are assisted by Agricultural Overseers and Demonstration Kamdars in the work of general demonstration and propaganda, and in the execution of Food Production Drive Schemes.

Demonstration Plots.—One Government farm cannot bring the message of scientific agriculture to all peasants in the District. The farm is a fixture. It cannot travel to the village and the villagers seldom wander thus far. Its place in village life is taken by demonstration plots. These plots bring the extension staff in close contact with the cultivators and offer best opportunity to bring home to them the improved agricultural practices, use of fertilizers and manures and comparative performance of different improved strains of seeds at their own door-steps. They serve as a medium for the flow of scientific research to the farmers. Sometimes the work on these plots is carried on in consultation with the Irrigation Department. At several places in commanded areas of the irrigation works demonstration farms were started to demonstrate benefits of growing irrigated crops. They served on a small scale, the purpose both of seed and demonstration farms, besides enabling the Department to test new varieties of seed and new agricultural practices under the soil and climatic conditions of the tract in which they are situated. These private plots are maintained for a period of about five years and usually the leading farmers come forward to offer their own farm for demonstration purposes. Efforts were also made at one time to bring the demonstration staff engaged in extension work in the District more

in touch with the people by sending them on tour with Revenue Officers.

Small demonstration plots managed by Kamdars have been an outstanding feature in the past. Looking to their success, general opinion favoured the institution of such plots throughout the district at a distance of not more than 10 to 15 miles (16 km. to 24 km.) However, Government could not do so, and attempts were, therefore, made to get private unions formed to run demonstration plots under their own trained ploughmen. These farms, wherever started, were practically self-supporting and effected rapid introduction of improved seeds and implements.

Apart from the private demonstration plots which were 1,020 in number in 1959-60, there was one Government demonstration plot at village Kua in Sihora tahsil. It was started in 1936. The plot is under command of the Bahoriband tank. The plot consists of 36 acres (15 ha.) of land out of which 19·10 acres (8 ha.) were under cultivation in 1959·60 Another Government demonstration plot was started subsequently at village Mahagwan in Katni tahsil under the scheme of Seed Multiplication Farm in the Second Five Year Plan. Besides, serving as a centre for agricultural demonstration, this is also utilized for multiplication of improved varieties of seeds and their distribution for further multiplication. Two more farms were opened. One farm is situated near village Piprodh in Katni tahsil. It consists of 100 acres (41 ha.) and was opened on 21st June, 1958. The other is located in village Lakhanwara in Jabalpur tahsil It has an area of 109 acres (44 ha.) and was started in 1957-58 These farms are the nucleii for the supply of improved seeds to the Development Blocks of the respective tahsils. Varietal, manurial and fertilizer trials on field scale are also conducted on these farms.

A very big farm, State Model Farm, was set up for experimentation, demonstration and multiplication at Khamaria in the year 1959-60. The area of the Farm extends over 1,121 acres (454 ha.) out of which 425 acres (172 ha.) are presently under cultivation. The Pariyat tank provides irrigation for 260 acres (105 ha.).

Vidya Mandir.—This scheme was inaugurated early in April, 1938 in the District. The originator of the scheme, late Pandit Ravi Shankar Shukla wanted the Vidya Mandirs to be centres of all round development of the village community and not merely

schools providing formal learning. For founding these Vidya Mandirs, plots were donated by the philanthropists. The teaching side was managed by *gurus* who were trained teachers. Before offers of land were accepted, they were fully examined by the Agriculture Department to determine their capability to yield an income sufficient to support the teacher or *guru*. It was hoped that Vidya Mandir farms will develop into ideal demonstration centres and be a potent influence in raising the standard of cultivation in their neighbourhood.

The Vidya Mandir Committees, however, did not realise their responsibility. The income from the farm land was also unreliable. So, very soon they came to grief. It was reported in 1941-47 that the condition of most of them was far from satisfactory.

At present there are five Vidya Mandir plots, *viz* —

1.	Mohgaon	... 34 acres (14 ha.)
2.	Neemkheda	... 20 acres (8 ha.)
3.	Ghania	.. 50 acres (20 ha.)
4.	Mureth	... 30 acres (12 ha.)
5.	Patori	... 30 acres (12 ha.)

The first is under the management of the Department. The rest have been leased out.

Agricultural Associations.—With the object of popularising and organising the work of the Department of Agriculture amongst the leading land owners in the District, Tahsil Agricultural Associations were started, the plan being to organise one such Association in each tahsil. Some of them raised share capital and started shops for the sale or hire of improved seeds and implements At one time they took the agency for the distribution of ammonium sulphate, insecticides and fungicides. However, the supply of improved wheat-seed remained the most important item of work.

These Associations did not function effectively due to lack of interest on the part of members and too much dependence upon Government. The Majhagawan Potato Growers' Co-operative Association which was organised in 1944-45 worked only for four or five years. The other Agricultural Associations have been converted into Co-operative Marketing Societies from the dates shown below.—

1.	Agricultural	Association,	Patan—12-2-58.
2.	—Do—	—Do—	Sihora—13-12-58.
3.	—Do—	—Do—	Shahpura—26-2-57.
4.	—Do—	—Do—	Majholi—30-7-59.
5.	—Do—	—Do—	Katni—30-7-59.

This conversion was in accordance with the scheme of development of co-operative marketing of agricultural produce taken up during the Second Five Year Plan. The scheme envisages the elimination of middle-men so as to ensure maximum profit to the cultivators by collection of farm surpluses through a net-work of co-operative societies at different levels. Thus the objectives of the Agricultural Associations and the Co-operative Marketing Societies are essentially the same.

Community Development Programme.—Community Development Programme was launched in the District as a powerful instrument for all-sided regeneration and progress of the rural areas. The first Blocks were opened at Barela and Bahoriband on 2nd October, 1951. Subsequently 11 more Blocks, *viz.*, Patan, Katni-Murwara, Shahpura (Bhitoni), Sihora, Barhi-Barwara, Kundam, Dhimarkheda, Bijairaghogarh, Bargi, Majholi and Rithi were opened. By the end of 1962 this Programme had been extended to cover almost all the villages of the District through these 13 Blocks.

While the Community Development Blocks aim at an all-round development of the rural community, agricultural development forms the hard core of the project. Increased emphasis has been laid on agricultural production activities since 1959-60. Detailed village-wise agricultural programmes are prepared in each Block, with particular stress on adoption of improved techniques of cultivation suited to the area on a mass scale, and the cultivator is assisted to achieve the objective of increased agricultural output per acre. Increased use of improved seed and fertilizer is stressed. Land reclamation and bunding are done. Efforts are made to bring more and more area under irrigation. Kitchen gardening and the laying out of orchards are also encouraged.

Co-operative Farming.—Co-operative farming does away with the difficulty of smallness of agricultural holdings. It enables the pooling of resources of the members and thus is an instrument for the improvement of agriculture. One Joint Farming Society and two Collective Farming Societies at Kachnari and Sahajpuri were functioning in the District on 30th July, 1962. Similarly, 24 Better Farming Societies were also in operation.

Crop Competitions.—Crop competitions are organised for stimulating the cultivators to attain high levels of agricultural production. Crop competition for wheat crop has been introduced in the Wheat Zone. In the year 1950-51, the highest yield of 4,400 lbs. of wheat per acre was reaped by Thakur Purandar Singh of village Laxmipur of

Jabalpur tahsil in a field of one acre offered for competition. I. P. 52 wheat was sown under irrigation. Next in order of merit was Ram Dutt Tiwari of village Audia of Katni tahsil who raised 4,182 lbs. per acre under irrigation. Govind Shankar Sharma of village Raksha, Jabalpur tahsil was awarded the First Prize in wheat crop competition during 1956-57 for securing an yield of 88 mds. per acre.

ANIMAL HUSBANDRY

In no country of the world are cattle more important than they are in India. Milk, though important, is a secondary consideration. The primary function of cattle is to provide motive power for carrying the various agricultural operations, *viz*, ploughing, sowing and threshing, driving the Persian wheel or the *mote* and haulage of the produce.

The live-stock wealth of the District is shown in the table below.

Categories	1921	1940	1945	1951	1956	1961
1 Cattle	430,016	586,840 (69.77)	549,092 (72.94)	582,985 (75.16)	[illegible],874 (71.86)	703,385 (71.30)
2 Buffaloes	91,489	110,796 (13.17)	112,768 (14.98)	(106,257) (13.75)	111,925 (12.51)	125,769 (12.75)
3 Sheep	12,705	20,640 (2.45)	10,801 (1.42)	7,890 (1.02)	11,030 (1.16)	11,127 (1.16)
4 Goats	33,783	93,993 (11.17)	59,121 (7.85)	55,750 (7.22)	104,415 (11.67)	122,593 (12.43)
5 Horses and ponies	12,079	11,555 (1.37)	7,661 (1.02)	7,223 (0.93)	7,350 (0.82)	4,480 (0.45)
6 Donkeys	361	1,135 (0.13)	311 (0.04)	312 (0.04)	248 (0.04)	207 (0.02)
7 Mules	585	946 (0.11)	61 (0.01)	33 (0.01)	15	35 (0.01)
8 Camels	5	56 (0.01)	3 ..	8 ..	7 ..	12 ..
9 Pigs	N.A.	15,187 (1.81)	12,990 (1.73)	12,139 (1.57)	14,753 (1.65)	18,543 (1.88)

Note.—Figures in brackets are percentages.

The year 1920-21 was a very calamitous one for cattle on account of severe scarcity of water and fodder, whose effects continued even during the succeeding years However, during the 40 year period, *i.e.*, 1921-1961, cattle and buffaloes registered an increase to the extent of 63.6 and 37·5 per cent, respectively. Most phenomenal increase has been in the case of goats whose number increased by 262.9 per cent. Sheeps, horses and ponies and donkeys have declined considerably by 10, 63 and 43 per cent, respectively. The decrease in the number of horses, ponies and donkeys which are used for transport and as pack-animals was evidently due to the popularity of mechanized transport.

Cattle constitute the most important group of live-stock in the District. They are 7·03 lakhs in number and 71·3 in percentage of the total population of live stock in 1961 The number of buffaloes was 1·26 lakh (12·8 per cent). Goats had almost an equal strength, *i.e.*, 1.2 lakh (12·4 per cent).

Cattle in general are of non-descript type with the exception of those born through Artificial Insemination Centres of the improved bulls supplied to the breeders.

Grazing and Fodder

Sufficient grazing land for cattle is not available in the District. During the quinquennium ending 1960-61, the average grazing area (comprising culturable waste, permanent pastures and grazing lands and forest open to grazing) aggregated 6.40 lakh acres (2.59 lakh ha.) which gave barely 0·77 acre (0·31 ha.) per head to bovine population and 0·66 acre (0·27 ha.) to an animal to graze in the District as against the State average of 1·58 acres (0·6 ha.) and 1·28 acres (0·5 ha.) respectively.[1] This clearly shows the inadequacy of grazing area. Moreover, these lands are not properly conserved, protected or regulated. The grazing area, particularly in *haveli* tract, has remained much less than in other tracts of the District over decades. So, the usual custom is to send cattle for grazing for nearly 9 to 10 months to the nearby forests of Damoh district. Cattle are driven to the forest during the rains, only a small number of milch heads being retained in the villages for stall feeding. During the *rabi* sowing operations the cattle for ploughing are brought and again returned to Government forests for grazing. This practice has been in vogue for over 100 years.

Very little area is devoted to the production of fodder crops. Quinquennial average (1956-57 to 1960-61) of area under fodder crops was only 688 acres (279 ha.), being 0·1 per cent of the total cropped area which worked out to one acre (0·41 ha.) per 1,000 animals.

1. Report on Ninth Quinquennial Livestock Census, M. P., p. 85

Preparation of silage from jowar stalks has not much scope as this crop is not extensively grown in the District. Attempts to popularize silage-making and growing of improved varieties of grasses are continuing from the year 1952-53 particularly in the Development Blocks. A special scheme for the development of fodder crops over 10 acres (4 ha.) of land at the Artificial Insemination Centre, Adhartal was started during Second Plan period. Pasture development activities have also been taken up at the State Farm as well as in some villages where sufficient pasture land is available. Pasture Development Demonstration Plots have been started in such Key Village Centres as have suitable pasture area.

Green and dried grass, jowar, *karbi*, paddy-straw, wheat-bran and crop-residues are used as fodder for cattle. Green grass is used in the later part of the rainy season and in winter season, while dried grass, jowar-stalks and straw are used as fodder during the later part of the winter and in hot weather. Straw of leguminous *rabi* crops and wheat and *bhusa* (husk) are used during the rest of the year. Scarcity of fodder is felt generally during the later part of summer season particularly in the year of draught. Concentrates are fed to adult males during the working season and to adult females when in milk. Young stock is not given concentrates.

Dairy Farming

No large-scale and organised system for the supply of milk is available in the District. Milk trade is mostly in the hands of private persons In big towns of the District, *viz.*, Jabalpur and Katni some persons have found it a profitable business to keep herds of milch cattle and sell milk. The villagers sell surplus milk either themselves or to the persons who go round collecting milk for sale in the towns. Milk from places which are not within easy reach of the towns is turned into *ghee* or *khoa*.

It has been estimated[1] that Government dairies supply 85.81 mds. of milk per day to Jabalpur City, private cattle owners 637.09 mds., and milk collectors and other agencies 304.29 mds. of milk. Thus the total daily milk supply aggregates 1,027.19 mds. Besides, 407.28 mds. of curd (whole milk) and 95.51 mds. of *ghee* are also consumed daily.

Organised dairy-farming is not practised by people as such. One dairy-farm of the Defence Department, catering to the needs of

1 "The Problem of Milk Supply in Jabalpur City", Jabalpur Agriculture College Magazine, 1958, p 11.

defence personnel, is functioning since 1899, where, about 7,500 lbs. of milk is produced daily. This dairy is fitted with modern equipments for pasteurisation of milk. The State Government started a dairy farm at Adhartal, four miles from Jabalpur, in 1955-56. Murrah, Tharparkar, and Red Sindhi types of milch cattle are maintained on the Farm whose present strength is 150. Daily output of milk amounts to 450 litres on an average. A milk union is also being started where arrangements for collection and pasteurisation of milk will be made.

Sheep Breeding

Sheep-rearing is not popular in the District on account of the paucity of grazing land. In fact the number of sheep has gone down by 30 per cent since 1906-07. However, sheep development work is being taken up through the agency of Development Blocks in the south-eastern part of the District which offers scope for grazing. Efforts to improve local sheep by the distribution of Bikaneri rams have not been successful due to the unsuitability of climate.

Pig Farming

Jabalpur has the third largest pig population among the districts of Madhya Pradesh. Trade in pig-bristles is very lucrative. Efforts have, therefore, been directed at the development of piggery in the District. With this end in view a Piggery Development Centre was opened at the Dairy Farm. Adhartal, in the year 1958. This Centre was started with a strength of 20 sows and 4 boars of Middle-White Yorkshire breed. The foundation stock was purchased from the Central Dairy Farm, Aligarh. Further, a Piggery Development Unit was opened in 1961-62 with the object of improving the local breeds of pigs.

Each pig is capable of yielding four to six ounces of bristles annually. On an average an ounce of raw bristles fetches a rupee. Normally, plucking of bristles starts when the animal in 12 to 18 months old, and bristles are plucked once or twice a year. Pig-rearers, generally, offer plucked bristles for sale in bulk at village bazars and fairs. They are purchased by exporters who process them before export. It may be of interest to note in this connection that Madhya Pradesh in one of the three bristle producing States of India, and Jabalpur is one of the two main trading centres for processed or dressed bristles. Bombay is the main port of shipment, U.S.A. and U.K. being the principal importers of this commodity. Export trade in bristles, thus, brings us valuable foreign exchange.

After the raw bristles are purchased, they are washed. the dirt removed and the individual bristles separated and formed into

bundles of uniform type, colour and length, literally hair by hair. They are sorted out according to their colour—white, grey and black. They are also classified according to their type—extra stiff, semi-stiff and soft. There are 19 sizes of length in which they are sorted, ranging from shorts and rillings (less than 2") to bristles 6¾" and over, in gradations of a quarter inch. The longer and whiter the bristles, the more price they fetch.

Poultry Farming

The Ninth Quinquennial Livestock Census of Madhya Pradesh, 1961, enumerated 67,271 birds in the District, consisting of 64,988 fowls, 883 ducks, and 1,400 'others'.

Majority of poultry stock in the District consists of *deshi* breeds. In the year 1961, only 7 per cent of the fowls were enumerated as improved. Of late, poultry development has received considerable impetus on account of recognition of eggs as a valuable supplement to diet. The first attempt to encourage poultry farming as a subsidiary industry was made in 1933-34 when this work was started on a small scale on the Agricultural Farm, Adhartal. White-Leghorn was found suitable for propagation in the District and was introduced near about the year 1944-45. For the popularization of poultry, three poultry units were opened at Katni, Patan and Bahoriband in the year 1953, 1955 and 1957 respectively. They supply improved varieties of cockerels, pullets and hatching eggs to the villagers through Block agencies. At the poultry unit of the Jabalpur Veterinary College, facilities have been provided for giving practical training to students in poultry husbandry. A poultry extension centre was opened at Adhartal in the year 1958-59, where at present more than 700 birds are being maintained. Its objects are to supply improved varieties of birds and hatching eggs at concessional rates and to impart training to the interested farmers in setting up small poultry units in their villages. A large poultry farm is proposed to be started at Adhartal. Facilities and subsidies are provided for private breeder farms for development of poultry in rural areas.

These development efforts have resulted in the creation of small pockets of improved birds and the emergence of private poultry units and farms in cities and villages. Larger number of people are taking up this industry as a supplement to their income.

Animal Diseases

Before States' reorganisation Jabalpur District was a border district of Madhya Pradesh. As such it has always been subject to the ingress of infection imported with the influx of diseased cattle

herds brought either for sale or for passage onwards. The spread of the cattle diseases has sometimes caused enormous losses. The contagious diseases of the cattle are rinderpest haemorrhagic septicaemia and black-quarter. Fowls suffer from pox and Ranikhet disease. Parasitic diseases like liver fluke infestation, surra, etc., are also known to occur in cattle and tick fever (spirochactosis) in fowls.

In areas where veterinary aid is not available easily, the farmers will treat their sick animals with indigenous drugs like *dhania, mircha, gur*, eucalyptus oil, etc. If these drugs fail to cure, they take the animals to the nearest hospital or dispensary.

With the development of veterinary science adequate preventive and curative measures have been discovered for most of the ailments of live-stock and, therefore, mortality due to these diseases has been considerably reduced. Timely prophylactic inoculation is done in the areas infected with haemorrhagic septicaemia and black-quarter. The Rinderpest Eradication Programme was started in September 1961. As a result this, disease has almost been eradicated from the face of the District.

Hospitals and Dispensaries.—The first veterinary hospital was started at Jabalpur in the year 1899. Subsequently such hospitals were establised at other tahsil headquarters at Patan (1927-28), Sihora and Katni. In the post-Independence period such institutions were established at Barela (31-3-54), Bahoriband (2-6-56), Shahpura (5-3-59) and Badwara (8-12-59). With a view to providing veterinary aid in remote areas small veterinary dispensaries, called outlying dispensaries, were set up and are presently working at 27 places, *viz*., Panagar, Kanwara, Surtalai, Chourai, Baghraji, Ghat Piparia, Sagda, Kaladehi, Nunsar, Katangi, Belkheda, Chargawan, Majhagawan, Majholi, Bakal, Sleemanabad, Sinhundi, Umaria Pau, Khamtara, Bilhari, Khitoli, Piprodhi, Deorihatai, Bhajia, Pipariakala, Karitalai and Hirde Nagar. Gram Sewaks posted in Block areas also render veterinary assistance.

Measures to Improve Quality of Breed

As the cattle supply motive power for different activities connected with agriculture, improvement in the quality of their breed is a matter of prime importance. But this subject for long remained neglected.

A live-stock farm was established in the year 1952 at village Richhai near Adhartal with the object of breeding and maintaining good cows and buffaloes. It worked as an adjunct to the Agriculture

Farm, Adhartal for 10 years. In recent years cattle improvement work is undertaken through the establishment of key-village centres. Four to five improved breeding bulls are maintained at each centre which serves about 10 contiguous villages. Villagers are required to provide dry fodder while the Government supplies concentrates to these bulls. A stockman is also posted at each key-village centre for keeping records and giving necessary veterinary aid. Six such institutions were established in the District at Majhgawan (1953), Tewar (1950), Majholi (1953), Patan (1956), Barela (1956) and Bahoriband (1956). A Bull Depot was also established at Jabalpur. Sanction for its expansion was given in 1957-58 as a Plan scheme. During 1964-65, 42 bulls were issued for breeding while 68 remained at the Depot at the close of the year.

With a view to removing the deficiency of improved bulls artificial insemination centres were opened. One centre has been attached to the Veterinary College, Jabalpur since 1955. The other centre was established at Adhartal Dairy Farm in February 1958. Five artificial insemination units are attached to the latter from where they obtain their supplies of semen. However, bulls are also supplied to these centres for natural service. Further impetus has been given to livestock-breeding under schemes of the Five Year Plan by which improved bulls are supplied to individual cattle breeders on subsidy basis.

Gosadan—Under the scheme of segregation of uneconomic and unproductive animals, a Gosadan was established at Ganga Bir, near Padaria village on Kundam Road, about 18 miles from Jabalpur. This Gosadan came into existence in 1957-58 and has a capacity of 500 animals. It is proposed to attach a *charmalaya* to the Gosadan.

Goshala—The institutions known as Goshalas, meant for the care and maintenance of old, decrepit and maimed animals, are run on public charity and often degenerate into national liabilities, mainly for paucity of funds. Steps were, therefore, taken to organise and, if necessary, to rehabilitate these institutions by turning them to good use as milk depots and cattle-breeding centres. At present two Goshalas, one at Katni and the other at Jabalpur, are functioning within the ambit of this scheme.

Veterinary College.—In the absence of a veterinary college of its own, this Province (old C. P. & Berar) had to depend upon other provinces for trained veterinary graduates. The number of veterinary graduates available for employment was absolutely in-

adequate. This shortage was further aggravated by taking in hand various post-War development schemes of Veterinary Department. To remove this shortage, a Veterinary College was established at Khamaria in the Khamaria Hospital building and was inaugurated on 8th July 1948 by the then Union Minister for Food and Agriculture. The College was also to function as a centre of investigation and research in diseases of live-stock. The full title of the project, therefore, was "Veterinary College and Livestock Research Institute."

The College moved to its present premises on 1st April 1949, which suitably house the instruction wing, three hostels and a full-fledged veterinary hospital. It was previously affiliated to the University of Saugar, but now to the University of Jabalpur which has a Faculty of Veterinary Science[1]. The College is preparing students for a four-year course after I.Sc., (Medical group) for the degree of Bachelor of Veterinary Science (B.V.Sc.) and since 1961-62 also for the degree of Master of Veterinary Science (M.V.Sc.) in specialised branches like Veterinary Pathology, Veterinary Bacteriology and Animal Nutrition.

With a view to strengthening the practical instruction and training of the students the Adhartal Dairy Farm was attached to the College about three years ago. With its 500 acres of land and 45 acres of perennial tank, it has now been converted into a composite Livestock Farm and Research Institute. The Farm supplies not only milk to the city but also improved poultry and pigs to the Community Development Blocks of the State. The tank is utilized for irrigation as well as for pisciculture. A key-village centre and an artificial insemination centre are also functioning under the College. It will soon have an extension Block under its control for imparting training in extension work. The College also offers opportunities for specialized research. At State level short refresher courses and seminars and in-service training classes have been organised.

Fisheries

The fish fauna of the District comprises some of the important varieties of food fishes, *viz.*, *Mahaseer* (*Barbus-Tor-tor*), *Bhakur* (*Catla catla*), *Narain* (*Cirrhina mrigala*), *Rohu* (*Labeo-rohita*, *Labeo-fimbriatus*), *Karayant* (*Labeo calbasu*), *Sawal* (*Ophiocephalus marulius*), *Bhunda* (*Ophiocephalus striatus*), *Mangur* (*Clarias batrachus*) and *Singhi* (*Hateropneustes fossilis*).

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1. The College has since been affiliated to the Jawaharlal Nehru Krishi Vishwavidyalaya, Jabalpur.

Since the establishment of the Fishery Development Office in Jabalpur in the year 1946-47 development of carp varieties of Bengal fish, *viz.*, *Rohu*, *Katla*, *Mrigala* and *Calbasu* is being promoted in selected tanks. Mirror carp, an exotic variety of carp, has also been introduced in the District. This variety is considered good for the table and sport and is likely to breed well in the local tanks. The fishermen ply their trade throughout the year in the fishing grounds, especially in the numerous big tanks, reservoirs and deeper pools in the rivers. The nets of the fisherfolk are mainly the cast-nets, the *tanger* (drag net), the *ton* (purse net) and *pilna* and *tangri* (small gill nets). The fishermen by working in the Departmental tanks have learnt the use of improved types of Rangoon nets made of nylon. They also use the long lines in the rivers and tanks. Killing of fish by spears is very common in the tanks. Dug-out boats are commonly used by the fishermen in tanks and rivers.

It has been the usual practice with the fishermen to collect the young ones of *Mangur* (*Clarias batrachus*), *Singhi* (*Hateropneustes fossilis*), *Sawal* (*Ophiocephalus marulius*) and *Bhunda Ophiocephalus striatus*) and put them in the small ponds and tanks for growth. These are taken out by Dheemars (a name given to fishermen, in the off-season of singhara, from February to May and June.

The Fisheries Development Office purchases the fry of the carps from Bengal, every year and liberates them in nursery ponds. They are manured for the growth of phyto-plankton and zoo-plankton which are good for the developing fry. Spawn in also obtained under special conditions. On the attainment of a size of 4″ to 5″ these fingerlings are transferred to big perennial tanks for growth. They are extracted by fishermen on royalty basis when they attain marketable size. The table given below shows fish production from the tanks under the Fisheries Development Scheme for the years 1959-60 and 1960-61.

Name of Tank	Productive Water Area		Fingerlings Stocked		Fish Extracted				Amount Realised	
					1959-60		1960-61			
	(Acres)	(Ha.)	1959-60	1960-61	(Mds.)	(Qtl.)	(Mds.)	(Qtl.)	(Rs.)	(Rs.)
1 Ganga Sagar	30	12	47,118	26,866	82	31	66	25	1,397	1,005
2 Supatal	12	5	3,660	2,600	21	8	32	12	350	545
3 Kham Tank	4	2	2,033	..	82	31	11	14	1,641	211
4 Adhartal	35	14	2,214	..	106	40	103	38	1,768	1,768

Fry and fingerlings of carps are supplied to tank-owners who wish to stock them. They are also supplied to Development Blocks for culture, in the tanks. Some Singharhas who own the tanks have also taken to pisciculture in their small tanks.

The fisherfolk bring their catches for sale in the market of Jabalpur usually on cycles. Fish is exposed for sale in the market in fresh condition. Dried fish and shrimps are imported from Bombay for sale. Small minnow fish which is collected from the nullahs in October and November is dried in the sun in large quantities and exported to Tatanagar. Smoked minnow fish is also sold in the market. There are two constructed fish markets in Jabalpur—one at Cantonment and the other at Gurandi. The retailers also go about selling fish in the city.

Singhara cultivation is an important indigenous industry in the District. Singhara-cum-fish culture is done in the tanks of the Department, *viz.*, Ganga Sagar and Supatal. The tanks are leased out to the Fishermen Co-operative Society, Garha, for singhara growing and extraction of fish on royalty basis. This Society was organised in 1950. Another such Society named Macchuya Sahakari Sabha was organised in village Amkheda in October 1961. Financial assistance is provided to them by the Government to better the economic lot of the fishermen.

The ponds, tanks and reservoirs in which the District abounds offer abundant scope for the development of pisciculture. Besides, the river Narmada with its tributaries Gour and Hiran, and the Mahanadi with its small tributary Katni drain the District. Further, fishing areas are being created with the construction of irrigation works where fishermen co-operative societies could be gradually organised.

In view of the singhara cultivation in the tanks on a large scale a research project of Trapa-cum-fish culture was started in 1961 with the aim of investigating economics of simultaneous culture of singhara and fish. It is planned to open experimental centres of spawn and fry and collect seeds of major carps in the rivers of the District with a view to attaining self-sufficiency in fish-seed.

FORESTRY

According to village papers forests occupy an area of 540,765 acres (or 845 sq. miles) in Jabalpur District[1]. The forests comprise 844.33 sq. kms. of Reserved forests and 1,473.70 sq. kms. of vested forests, now classed as Protected. The forests have been divided

1. The Forest Department records, however, show in all 2,318.03 sq. kms. or 24 per cent of the total area as the forest area of the District

into six ranges, *i.e.*, Jabalpur 241·0 sq. kms., Sihora 536·11 sq. kms., Katni 417.17 sq. kms., Barhi 349·18 sq. kms., Bargi 292.65 sq. kms., and Kundam 481 92 sq. kms. The entire forest area of the District has been covered by working plans or working schemes. Vested forests are found all over the District in scattered patches in the proximity of villages. The condition of these vested forests is not good on account of earlier reckless exploitation and mismanagement. Land hunger was also partly responsible for their deforestation. Forests occupy an important place in the economy of the District. The exploitation of forests itself employs a large number of people. Moreover, the forests supply raw material for some of the more important industries of the District, *viz.*, bidi-making furniture-manufacture, saw-mills, *katha*-manufacture, etc.

Management of Forests

Forest administration in Madhya Pradesh actually started in 1860 with the appointment of Col G. F. Pearson as the first Conservator of Forests for Saugor and Nerbudda Territories. Management was first introduced in 1862 with the promulgation of the Waste Land Rules under which the felling of teak *sal*, *saj*, *shisham* and *bija*, without the sanction of the Deputy Commissioner was forbidden. All other species remained fully accessible on payment of an annual commutation fee Apart from shifting cultivation which was the main cause of wastage and wanton destruction of valuable forest, the railways which were being opened just then made a heavy demand on the forests in Khitoli area for the supply of sleepers. These forests were the first to be demarcated and formally preserved in 1867 under the Indian Forest Act, 1865. Heavy fellings, however, continued. In 1871 the *sal* forests were closed to all cutting and grazing. All other forests were treated as unreserved under the Act of 1865 and continued to be managed by the Deputy Commissioners. They were leased out to annual farmers for unrestricted exploitation except that a few species, such as teak, *sal*, *mahua*, *achar*, etc. had to be rigidly respected. The unreserved forests were notified as reserved in 1879 under Section 34 of Indian Forest Act of 1878. Shifting cultivation was stopped with effect from 20th February 1879. It was decided to stop indiscriminate fellings. A system of regulated fellings according to the working plan prepared by some Forest Rangers in 1844-45 proved to be a failure. Later a plan prepared by E. E. Fernandez was introduced from 1st November 1899. This plan was replaced in 1929 by a plan prepared by Gurdial Singh. Gurdial Singh prepared a revised plan in 1939 which was replaced by the plan prepared by F. A. Lahiri in 1952-53.

The Working Plans have already been discussed in detail in Chapter I.

Protected Forests.—Proprietary rights were created during the Settlement of 1863-75, popularly known as Malguzari Settlement. The Rule devised in 1862 was to grant to the village, for inclusion in the estate, an area of waste land equal to 100 per cent as a minimum and 200 per cent as maximum on the area of cultivated land for extension of cultivation and use of grazing ground, etc., and reserve the rest to Government.

It was in the Indian Forest Act of 1878 that a greater part of the available waste was declared Reserved, *i.e.*, the Government forest. Wasteful treatment of forests in the village estates was prevented by the formulation of the document known as *wajib-ul-arz*. Certain valuable trees like teak, *sal* and *shisham* were not allowed to be cut without a reference to the Tahsildar and one good growth was to be left on each hundred square yards. *Mahua* trees were to be reserved.

Section 124 A of the Land Revenue Act of 1881 dealt with the protection of these forests. Corresponding to this, Section 202 of the Land Revenue Act, (II of 1917) dealt with the powers to regulate, control and manage the forest growth on the waste-lands of villages and to frame necessary rules. It empowered the Deputy Commissioner to notify a forest as requiring special protection and to impose a penalty for any breach of rules for the protection of forests. But these rules were never properly cared for and the malguzars and zamindars dealt with the forests as their personal property without any idea of conservancy. The Land Revenue Act also provided that the proprietors could prepare working plans for their forests and in areas for which such working plan was approved by the Government, cuttings were not required to conform to the restrictions imposed by the Act. Working plans were prepared for bigger estates of Imalai and Salaiya. This provision proved an additional cover for the proprietors to harvest as much of the forests as they could possibly do. Areas which were not commercially exploited either under the sanctioned working plans or through leases, were subjected to heavy use by the local population. *Nistar* was seldom limited to terms of the *wajib-ul-arz*, and the ex-proprietors freely allowed their tenants a liberal use of the forests in return for service rendered by them. The ruthless exploitation of private forests was somehow affected only by the Madhya Pradesh Abolition of Proprietary Rights (Estate Mahals and Alienated Lands) Act, 1950 (I of 1951). But during the pre-liquidation period the landlords rather squeezed the remaining forest wealth, as their last gain. Maximum revenue in

the shortest time was their motto. This created a grave shortage of forest produce and a danger to the very existence of these forests for a long time. After the abolition of proprietary rights, the ex-proprietary forests were placed for some time under the Revenue Department. Protection being unassured under this arrangement, the so-called better quality forests and compact blocks were transferred to the Forest Department in 1954. The remaining forests continued under the Revenue Department for management by the Gram Sabhas or Nistar Panchayats in accordance with the rules framed by the State Government. The blocks transferred to the Forest Department were classed as Protected forests.

To solve the existing confusion regarding *nistar* the Government appointed Nistar Officers. The forests were divided into *nistar* zones. Villagers included in a particular zone could obtain their requirements from forests attached to the zone only. These zones were formed on the basis of area irrespective of conservancy ideals and were found unworkable by the Forest Department which later divided these forests into felling series attached to a group of villagers to meet their *nistar* requirements. Each felling series was divided into 20 coupes, one to be worked each year in rotation for *nistar* purposes. A systematic working scheme for better quality forests in Protected areas under the management of Forest Department was prepared for a period of 20 years with effect from 1962 63

Effect of Government Forest Policy.—As a result of scientific management the Reserved forests have improved considerably in quality, composition and density and have become an asset to the State. The Reserved forests had been under protection from fires and illicit fellings for over 75 years and have considerably improved the condition of their growing stock. The ex-vested forests, now under the Forest Department, will take considerable time to improve. The forests in the remote areas, rich in potentiality, have been made accessible by means of fair-weather roads, measuring over 200 miles (322 kms.) in length in addition to the intersecting P. W. D. roads. The demand for timber, fuel and other forest produce, low in the beginning of the 20th century has now increased to outstrip the average yield under conservancy.

Mixed Forests.—The mixed miscellaneous forests are found throughout the District. They are by far the most widely distributed, growing on almost every type of geological formation. The usual quality of these forests is IV (40'-50' high or under 40' high) with occasional patches of III quality (50'-70' high). They are found

mixed up with *sal* and teak forests all over the Division. The common varieties found in this type of forests have been mentioned earlier in Chapter I. Owing to the high price of the teak and *sal* trees, miscellaneous species are now commonly sown and widely used for construction of buildings, furniture, making of bobbins, toys and agricultural implements and manufacture of straw-boards, paper and match-sticks.

Forest Produce

The Reserved forests contain good quality forests of teak as well as *sal*. This is the outcome of the reservation of forests for a long time. The Protected forests had been over-burdened with rights in the past. As such very little timber of good quality has been left in them.

Sal—*Sal* forests occur mostly in the northern part of Jabalpur District, mostly in Barhi and Katni ranges the quality of *sal* forests is generally poor. The *sal* forests can be classified into two local sub-types:—

(i) The low level type.—The coupe containing this type is mainly of III quality (50'-70' high) with some II quality (70-90 high). *Sal* forms 80 to 90 per cent of the crop and the forest is dense. Trees are straight and well grown. This type is found in certain parts of the Murwara range.

(ii) The high level type.—The bulk of the crop is IV in quality (40' to 50' high). *Sal* forms 20 to 60 per cent of the crop which varies considerably in density. Most of the *sal* forests belong to this type.

Teak—The teak forests are mainly found in the southern ranges of Jabalpur District— Kundam, Jabalpur, Bargi and Sihora ranges. Kundam range is particularly rich in teak forests. Teak is the chief species and forms from 20 per cent to 80 per cent of the crop and occasionally reaches 100 per cent to form pure patches of teak forests.

Fuel.—There is brisk demand for fuel on the forests situated near Jabalpur and Katni for the manufacture of lime. On account of increasing population pressure on fuel supplies is also increasing correspondingly. It is therefore, contemplated to have fuel and fodder reserves in close proximity to big towns with a view to reducing this pressure on the forests.

Charcoal.—Charcoal burning is in vogue in areas lying over 15 miles (24 kms.) away from the municipalities and notified areas.

The minor forest produce includes bamboo, *harra*, *kattha*, leaves, skins, horns, bones, grasses, etc.

Bamboos—Bamboos are found over a great extent and are one of the principal minor forest produce. The only species of bamboos found is *Dendrocalamus strictus*. It occurs over about 172 sq. miles (446 sq. kms), in the Reserve Forests and is principally confined to Kundam and Bargi ranges. It does not form pure forests and is associated with both teak and miscellaneous forests. The vested forests are equally rich in this commodity, but their potentiality has not been assessed properly. Working scheme for these forests is in the making which will enable their full utilisation. Bamboo is exported to Uttar Pradesh in quite considerable quantities. Bamboo is used for a variety of purposes, such as sieves, baskets, winnowing trays, chicks, fishing rods, umbrella handles and frames, brooms and also household furniture.

Lac—Lac is chiefly grown on *ghont* and *palas* and to some extent on *ber* and *kusum* trees. The main lac markets are at Jabalpur and Katni whose fortunes depend upon the highly speculative Calcutta quotations. Lac is converted into shellac for which U.S.A. offers the main markets. It is also exported to U. K., Germany, U.S.S.R. and Japan. The future of this commodity is bleak due to discovery of synthetic substitute.

Kattha.—*Kattha* is manufactured from the heart-wood of *khair* tree wherever it occurs in sufficient quantity. Leases for the felling of *khair* for *kattha* manufacture are commonly given on payment of a lump sum. The contractor is permitted to remove all *khair* trees above a specified size (usually 15 in girth at breast height) from the area allotted for working during the year. Demand for *kattha* is quite keen and it fetches good price. It is used in the making of dye and preparation of *pan*.

Tendu Leaves—These constitute a very important minor forest produce and are used for wrapping tobacco in the manufacture of bidis, which is the outstanding cottage industry of the District. The leaves are exported to Gondia and Nagpur in Maharashtra State. They fetch from three to four lakhs of rupees annually.

Harra.—This is the fruit of *harra* trees commercially known as myrobalans and is used in tanning industry. It is usually exported outside the State chiefly from Jabalpur.

Kulu Gum—This was a great revenue earning commodity, but lately the prices have recorded a decline on account of the discovery of a synthetic material in foreign countries.

Edible Flowers and Fruits.— *Mahua* and *achar* are two important produce which are in great demand locally. These are allowed free to the public for its *bona fide* consumption and, as such, no leases are auctioned. The *mahua* flower is the poor men's food in scarcity conditions. Its seed is an important source of vegetable oil which is extracted locally.

Medical Plants.—*Chiraita* (*Andrographic pariculata*) and *baibirang* (*Embellia robusta*) are found in the forests of the District.

The average quantity of these forest produce raised during the last three years has been as follows:—

Bamboo	15,000 Tons.
Kattha	2 Tons.
Harra	25 Tons.
Lac	20 Tons.
Tendu-leaves	1,000 Tons.
Kulu-gum	5 Tons.

Grazing.—The general incidence of grazing in the Reserve Forests of this Division is light to moderate except in areas in close proximity of big villages and *guari* camps. Thus the pressure of grazing is unevenly distributed which has led to the deterioration of pasture in such tracts. Sheep and goat are excluded from the Reserved Forests. Illicit grazing in closed coupes is common which damages the young coppice shoots. Periodic opening of closed coupes is done to minimise such damage. Average area open to grazing is 306 sq. miles (793 sq. kms.). *Guari* cattle come from Narsimhapur *haveli* tracts to graze in the Reserved Forests of the District.

Nistar Facilities.- *Nistar* facilities have been extended to all the villagers residing near the forests. These facilities are for *bona fide* purposes only. The material taken out for *nistar* cannot be sold.

The Forest Department has opened depots in many villages. The villagers after getting a certificate from the Gram Panchayat or Nyaya Panchayat mentioning their requirements can obtain timber from the depots after payment of the cost of extraction of the material from the forest to the depots.

There are three types of depots:

(i) Coupes of departmental fellings.—The material obtained in the cutting-back operations of any coupe below 24" girth, is sold to the villagers at prescribed rates.

(ii) Government depots.—In some villages which are away from Reserved or Protected Forests Government depots have been opened. These depots sell poles and timber below 24" girth.

(iii) Ex-malguzari forest depots.—In certain *nistar* zones *nistar* coupes, 1/20 in extent of the zone, have been kept aside to meet the *nistar* needs of the villagers. The villagers take out their requirements from these coupes only, so that the remaining portion can be protected. Even from these coupes only fuel and timber below 24" girth can be taken out.

Timber for house construction (below 24" girth) is given to the villagers from ex-malguzari forests. This timber is supplied at half the market rates and can be had from such depots.

The farmers who live within five miles of the forest area, have been given special permission to extract timber to repair their agricultural tools. Such timber can be extracted from Reserved Forests after obtaining rated pass from the Patels of the villages. This concession is granted only at the time of agricultural work, *i.e.*, June-July and October-November.

The State Government has granted concessions to the agriculturists in the matter of grazing whereby cultivators owning eight heads of cattle can graze four of them free and four at privileged rate.

Revenue and Expenditure

Revenue is obtained from various products, major and minor. Timber, however, accounts for the largest share of revenue. Teak fetches as much as Rs. 150 per cft. in the round, and a teak tree of 65 cft. in volume is worth about a thousand rupees. Forest revenue

ranks only second to land revenue. Revenue and expenditure of Jabalpur District forests for the three years from 1959-60 are shown below.

Year	Revenue (In '000 Rs.)	Expenditure (In '000 Rs.)
1959 – 60	12,01	4,36
1960 – 61	18,49	4,79
1961 – 62	17,53	5,98

Plantations

Many plantations are being raised in the Division under the Five Year Plans. The plantations are generally of teak though some other species are also being raised. These plantations will replace the existing types of forests and waste lands. A list of plantations

Plantations

Year	Range	Area		Species
		Area	Ha.	
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
1957-58	Katni	15	6	
	Sihora	30	12	
	Jabalpur	40	16	
	Jabalpur	10	4	
1959-60	Kundam	20	8	Teak
	Jabalpur	3	1	Maharukh
	Jabalpur	5	2	Prosopis Species
	Katni	5	2	Cashew
	Barhi	5	2	Teak
1960-61	Jabalpur	1	0.4	Eucalyptus & sisoo
	Jabalpur	5	2	Teak
	Jabalpur	75	30	Teak with sowings of khair & sisoo
	Kundam	25	10	Teak
	Katni	6	2	Teak
		25 (Strips)	10	Teak and Cashew
	Bargi	5	2	Teak
1961-62	Kundam	75	30	Teak
	Sihora	35	14	
	Katni	18	7	
1962-63	Kundam	30	12	Teak
	Sihora	35	14	Teak
	Katni	38	15	Teak
	Bargi	25	10	Teak

Research

Looking to the vast and unexplored forest wealth of the State, the State Government decided to establish the State Forest Research Institute, which came into existence at Jabalpur in the year 1963. Spread over an area of 263 acres of land in Jabalpur with a Regional Research Centre at Nepanagar (District East Nimar), the Institute consists of seven wings—Experimental Silviculture Wing, Mensuration Wing, Botany Wing, Soil Science Wing, Forest Influences Wing, Statistics Wing and Documentation Wing—co-ordinating researches on all aspects of Forestry. It has been decided to set up at Jabalpur a Regional Research Centre of the Forest Research Institute, Dehradun. Land for this Centre has already been acquired by the State Government.

Jabalpur District had the first commercial seasoning installation of India. This was set up in the year 1927 by the Gun Carriage Factory for drying timber used in making gun carriages It was made possible by over a decade of intensive research beginning in 1914 in timber drying at the Forest Research Institute, Dehradun.

STATE ASSISTANCE TO AGRICULTURE

Provision for assistance to the needy agriculturists exists in the Land Improvement Loans Act, 1883 and Agriculturists' Loans Act, 1884. The loans are advanced out of funds provided by the Revenue Department. These loans are classified as ordinary Taccavi. Usually loans were advanced only in famine or scarcity-striken areas. In scarcity conditions, some loans were also advanced as *khawai*, loans which were not recovered. Loans under the Agriculturists' Loans Act are intended primarily to relieve distress and to assist the poorer cultivators in financing their agricultural operations. Loans under the Land Improvement Loans Act are intended to encourage the cultivators to undertake land improvement measures and need not in principle be restricted either to the poorer cultivators or to the time of distress.

Loans are granted for short or medium term according to the purposes of the loan. Short-term loans are granted for maintenance, seed, weeding and manure, and are repayable at the next harvest out of the produce of that crop. Medium term loans are granted for making improvement on land or for the purchase of bullocks or agricultural machinery or construction of bunds and are recoverable in a maximum of 25 instalments, ranging ordinarily from five to 10.

Transactions under the Agriculturists' Loans Act have been small except in the years of famine. Perhaps the most important function fulfilled by this Act was the mitigation of the worst features of seasonal calamity by providing the people with money for their immediate agricultural necessities at a time when local credit contracted to the narrowest limits.

The statement in Appendix A. Table XII shows the Taccavi loans advanced under the two loan Acts in the District for the years 1930-31 to 1961-62.

The Second World War and Bengal Famine (1943-44) underlined the imperative need for increasing food production. From the year 1943-44 new schemes under Grow More Food were brought into force and the cultivators were encouraged to produce more food with the help of additional funds made available to them through the Collectors at concessional rates of interest. Besides, provision was also made for subsidy up to 1/5 of the loan granted provided it was utilised for the purpose for which it was advanced within the prescribed time-limit. Advances given under the Grow More Food Schemes are shown in Appendix A, Table XIII.

Development Taccavi is also made available to the cultivators for which allotments are put at the disposal of the Collector by the Development Department. The amount advanced to the cultivators during the three years 1959-60, 1960-61 and 1961-62, for which figures are available, under the two enactments already referred to is shown below.

Year	Amount (Rs.)
1959-60	80,788
1960-61	84,586
1961-62	52,640

Failures of crops necessitate the grant of relief of some special nature in order to remove distress of the farming classes. During such periods, besides the grant of large amounts as Taccavi loans, remissions and suspensions in Taccavi loans are also sanctioned by the State Government.

FLOODS AND FAMINES

In the northern half of Jabalpur District, particularly Murwara tahsil, agricultural conditions are extremely poor and this area is liable to crop failure and scarcity even with a slight departure from the normal conditions of weather. The soil is light and inferior in quality, capable of producing paddy and mostly minor *kharif* crops. This part of the District has suffered from scarcity or famine approximately once in every decade and crop failures of a more or less serious nature more frequently.

With regard to early famines in the District, there exists very little on record. The earliest scarcities of which accounts are available resulted from political disturbances rather than climatic causes. War and its effects account for distress which prevailed in upper Narmada Valley during the years 1771, 1783 and 1809. It is stated that in 1818-19, the year after the cession of the District to British rule famine was caused by the failure of the autumn rains and excessive rains during the following cold seasons. Acute famine prevailed for seven months and was attended by much suffering and loss of life. Wheat sold at four seers to the rupee. In 1832-33 severe distress was caused by exactly opposite conditions—excessive rainfall at the outset followed by a failure of rain. In 1833-34 owing to the failure of autumn rain the spring crop area of the District was left practically unsown. The cultivators of Jabalpur flocked into the city leaving their fields untilled. In 1854-55 a visitation of rust caused by the continuous rainfall from October to the end of March totally destroyed the *rabi* crops of the District.

The year 1868-69* memorable as that of the Bundelkhand famine, was one of severe drought and was the driest year in the rainfall history of the District, the total rainfall being 13.39" against an average of more than 50 inches The *kharif* crops were completely destroyed by drought, but the *rabi* crops were partially saved by the copious rainfall towards the end of September. Acute distress was confined to the Murwara tahsil. The mortality was heavy and left traces behind it for some time afterwards. It was during this famine that the principle of the responsibility of the State for the protection of life of its subjects was for the first time clearly enunciated.

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*Popularly known as *Pachchisa* meaning 25, that year being 1925 of the Vikram era.

In 1877-78 the rainfall was abnormal in its distribution in many places, unseasonable and everywhere much below the normal. The rice crop failed and the out-turn of wheat was poor. The year 1878-79 ranks as the next driest year after 1868-69, the rainfall being only 27.41 inches. But the monsoon was very well suited to the *kharif* crops and had there been adequate rains at the end of December or beginning of January, the result would have been bumper *rabi* harvests. Prices, especially of the better kinds of grain, ranged very high, but owing to the good *kharif* crops food-grains were obtainable everywhere and the poorer classes did not suffer much.

The District then continued to enjoy a spell of prosperity. Good harvest and brisk export trade were taken for granted. An almost unbroken sequence of excellent season had beguiled men into accepting a very favourable year as a normal one and bumper harvest as a matter of course. But the year 1892-93 gave a big jolt which marked the beginning of an unparalleled series of misfortunes. In that year commenced the cycle of wet years when three successive spring crops were spoilt by excessive winter rains. These wet years chiefly affected the best parts of the District where rust is the most deadly foe of wheat.

In 1892-93 the excessive cold weather rain and appearance of rust reduced the wheat and linseed crops to 60 and 45 per cent of the normals. In 1893-94 the heavy autumn rain followed again by cold weather rain worked still greater havoc and further reduced them to 30 and 15 per cent. In 1894-95 the same conditions almost entirely destroyed the *haveli* wheat crop and other crops of the *rabi* seasons there and over the rest of the District.

This wet cycle was followed by a dry one which shifted the area of the greatest damage to the *kharif* tracts where the people were least able to withstand it. The year 1895-96 was bad enough, the combined out-turn of all the crops being only 47 per cent of the normal. Influx of labourers from the then States of Rewa and Bundelkhand aggravated the difficulties of the situation. The mortality was heavy in the Murwara tahsil where it rose from 35.10 per mille in 1895 to 69.48 per mille in 1896. Then came the famine of 1896-97. The rainfall was scanty, partial and local and with dry October the spectre of empty grain-bins, hunger and death loomed large. The rain came, but it was too late to confer any benefits on *rabi* crops. The area under *rabi* crops dwindled from 6.30 lakh acres in 1894-95 to 4.56 lakh acres in 1895-96 and

further fell to 4.12 lakh acres in 1896-97. By the middle of December, regular relief works were in operation.

Labour was principally employed on road works and metal collection. Local works were opened to provide relief to those who were fit for light work and in outlying tracts which the P.W.D. works did not fully reach. In the Jabalpur city the Municipality took up many works of local improvement through funds provided by the Government. Repairs to tanks and construction of field embankments alleviated misery to some extent. Construction of Sagar-Katni extension of the Railway afforded considerable employment for able-bodied labourers in the Murwara tahsil during the whole of the famine period. Direct relief to the sufferers in various forms was also organised.

The highest number of persons on all forms of relief was 96,862 or 12.95 per cent of the population of the District. Total expenditure on famine relief was Rs. 18.93 lakhs and total incidence per unit was Re. 0.1.3. The total number of day-units relieved was 24,230.707. Rs. 3.24 lakhs on account of the demand for land revenue and cesses were suspended and Rs. 5.64 lakhs on account of the outstanding arrears were remitted. Rs. 1.77 lakhs were advanced as Taccavi loans for seed grain and Rs. 4.25 lakhs were distributed from charitable grants. Missions also came forward to help in famine-relief work.

In the year 1897, the rate of mortality was 72.15 per mille as against 63.16 in 1896. An influx of starving wanderers in an emaciated condition from neighbouring states helped to swell the mortality at the beginning of the year. Prices ruled high owing to the wide area over which the famine extended and the deficiency of transport. Average price for wheat during 1897 was 9.5 seers per rupee. Jowar and rice were sold at 13.6 seers and 9.2 seers per rupee.

The famine of 1897 was followed by two years (1897-98 and 1898-99) of fairly good harvest inspite of the deficiency of October rains, but the condition of the cultivators at the end of 1898 was far from satisfactory, the long series of calamities having greatly impoverished the District.

In 1899 rainfall was very low. All over the District rice gave no out-turn. To the loss of *kharif* had to be added the exceedingly bad *rabi*. Wheat crop was only half of the normal. The combined out-turn of all the crops for both seasons was only one quarter of the normal. Famine prevailed from October 1899 to

November, 1900, and the deficiency of the rainfall led to severe epidemics of cholera, dysentery, diarrhoea and other diseases resulting from bad water. The administration during this famine was extremely liberal and efficient. Hence the people were in better condition to meet it and the effect of the famine was far less marked. The numbers on relief reached 65,000 or nearly nine per cent of the population in July, 1900, and expenditure was about Rs. 9 lakhs. Inspite of the greater severity of famine, prices were generally lower than in 1897.

The period covering the two big famines of 1897 and 1900 was the most disastrous through which the Central Provinces have had to pass since the Maratha War in the beginning of the century. These famines were of the first magnitude, occasioned by complete failure of both the harvests and affecting nearly the whole area of the Province.

The effect of these severe and continuous losses necessarily told heavily upon the resources of the people. Rents fell into arrears, land became scarce and debts accumulated.

After 1902 although no famine or scarcity has caused so much distress as the great famines of the past, there have been serious failures of crops repeatedly in different years resulting in the declaration of famine or scarcity conditions. In some years (1941-42 to 1945-46) though there was no formal declaration of scarcity, relief operations were undertaken. Crop failures were reported in the years 1907-08, 1913-14, 1918-19, 1920-21, 1927-28, 1928-29, 1929-30, 1940-41, 1941-42, 1946-47, 1949-50 and 1956-57. Scantiness of rains has been the principal cause. However, some of these events need special mention.

The famine of 1918-19 stands apart from others on account of the influenza epidemic on an unprecedented scale which left a large number of people weakened in body and enfeebled in spirit. It ravaged the land in October and November and resulted in the most appalling mortality within the memory of man, the deaths being estimated at five per cent of the total population of Central Provinces and Berar. Moreover, the prices continued to rise throughout the year to levels unknown in the worst famine years.

The way in which the people resisted the famine, shows the greatly increased resisting power of the people caused by the great changes in economic conditions during the past decades.

This is further illustrated by the famine of 1920-21 which had witnessed a crop failure more serious than any since 1899-1900.

There was considerable mortality in this famine caused by severe cholera epidemic which visited the District in the hot weather of 1921 and the widespread attacks of malaria which occurred towards the end of the monsoon of 1921. The death rate shot up from 36.57 per mille for the quinquennium 1912-17 to 72.36 per mille during the year.

Frost was responsible for the scarcity of 1928-29. Bumper *rabi* harvest was anticipated when on the nights of 31st January and 1st February the severest frost on record virtually destroyed the crops. This frost was part of the anti-cyclonic cold wave that held all Asia and Europe in its grip. During the year 1946-47 rust caused considerable damage to *rabi* crops, especially wheat, masur and linseed.

It need not be mentioned that conditions have now changed, and the incidence of widespread and severe distress and destitution have now become a matter of recorded history, though the possibilities of severe crop failures are not ruled out. Preparedness is the watchword of the modern system of relief. Techniques have been developed for dealing with distress in early stages. There has been a general absence of successive crop failures which would have a cumulative effect resulting in progressive deterioration of the condition of the people. People have also become more resourceful. Thanks are also due to improvements in the system of transport and communication, increased mobility of labour, steady expansion of industrial employment and gradual development of irrigation and agricultural science, *i.e.*, introduction of rust-resistant varieties of wheat, linseed, etc.

Experience shows that most of the serious crop failures have been due to the failure of autumn rains. Rainfall during June, July and August is, of course, essential for the *kharif* crops, but to enable them to attain full maturity rainfall during September and October (autumn rains) is most important and on it the out-turn entirely depends. The character of the rainfall of the same two months determines the successful sowing and germination of *rabi* crops. Autumn rains provide the link between the two crops. Experience further shows that the *rabi* area is more vulnerable. It is affected not only by rainfall but also by conditions like continuous cloudy weather, cold winds, hail, rust, insects and the like.

Ordinarily famine or scarcity conditions arise when both *kharif* as well as *rabi* crops fail either completely or partially. The extent of the scarcity has to be found out on the basis of the areas under the two crops and the extent of their failure.

Floods

In August 1926, a very heavy downpour occurred in the District causing unprecedented high floods in the Narmada river. Considerable damage was caused to the crops in the riverain villages of the District.

Katni and Sihora tahsils of Jabalpur District were hit by unprecedented floods on account of heavy and continuous rainfall on the night of August 5-6, 1961. Downpour amounting to 13·97 inches at Sihora and 17"-18" in the interior of the tahsil, and that too confined to seven hours only, was recorded. Katni recorded a rainfall of seven inches on the morning of 6th August, 1961. It had been raining incessantly for more than a week. The Katni, the Simar, the Kahari, the Niwar and the Hiran rivers of Katni and Sihora tahsils were flooded touching the highest mark ever witnessed. The gauge levels were reported to have reached a higher mark than the highest floods of 1926 and broke their banks. It is said that people had never known such a heavy downpour of rain in their living memory. The railway line between Hardua and Rithi was breached resulting in the interruption of traffic between Bina and Katni from 6th August, 1961. Sihora was completely cut off from both Jabalpur and Mirzapur road-sides. Sihora-Katni Road and Sihora-Majholi Road were flooded. Bahnala submerged the Sihora-Jabalpur Road. Hiran bridge near Ghat-Simaria was under 20 ft. water, water almost touching the Railway line on the 48 ft. high bridge. The bridge near Katangi on Jabalpur-Damoh Road was under water for more than six days. Six wards of the Katni town were under six ft. deep water. About 3,000 houses were damaged and 200 heads of cattle perished. Patan tahsil escaped with comparatively minor loss and Jabalpur tahsil suffered the least.

Besides damage to houses, standing *kharif* crops, stored grain, bunds and field-embankments were damaged. In some places adjoining the river surface soil was completely washed away and sandy soil emerged.

All the irrigation tanks in Sihora and Katni tahsils had overflown and their waste weirs passed double the normal discharge. This caused heavy damages.

The total damage was estimated at Rs. 18.62 lakhs as shown below:

Katni Tahsil	Rs. 6.10 lakhs.
Sihora Tahsil	Rs. 11.0 lakhs.
Patan Tahsil	Rs. 0.75 lakhs.
Jabalpur Tahsil	Rs. 0.02 lakhs.
Irrigation system	Rs. 0.75 lakhs.
	Rs. 18.62 lakhs.

With a view to alleviate the distress of the flood-striken people relief centres were opened, which distributed food, clothing, utensils, etc. Large quantities of foodgrains were distributed. Government sanctioned a sum of Rs. 2.34 lakhs for provision of gratuitous relief to the flood sufferers.

CHAPTER V

INDUSTRIES

Unlike several neighbouring districts Jabalpur has a variety of industries. The establishment of major industries, as contrasted with the old-time industries and the small-scale and cottage industries, is a more recent phenomenon. Most of these industries have their bases in mineral substances of economic value found in the District, while a few of them are located in the District for reasons ot security. The growth of these industries has not altered materially the basic agricultural character of the District. Nevertheless, they have imparted to the economy a measure of diversity and strength.

Population Dependent on Industries

In the Census of 1961 the total population has been divided into "workers" and "non-workers". Persons engaged in productive occupations and classed as "actual workers" in the Census of 1911 and 1921, "earners" and "working dependants" in 1931 Census and "self-supporting persons" and "earning dependants" in respect of their secondary means of livelihood in 1951 Census, constituted the class of "workers" in these earlier Censuses. Moreover, "workers" shown as engaged in "household industry", a new category introduced in 1961 Census, were included in earlier Censuses in groups falling under two other categaries, *viz*., (1) manufacturing other than household industry and (2) mining, quarrying, livestock, forestry, fishing, hunting and plantations, orchards and allied activities. It is, therefore, necessary to consider the aggregate number of "workers" in all these three categories to arrive at a meaningful comparison of 1961 Census data with those of earlier Censuses.

The number of persons engaged in these three industrial categories between 1911 and 1961 is shown in the table below.

Year	Total population	Industrial population	Industrial population as percentage of total population
1911	7,45,892	56,280	7.55
1921	7,45,685	55,137	7.39
1931	7,73,811	43,404	5.61
1951	10,45,596	81,166	7.76
1961	12,73,825	1,05,738	8.30

The industrial population was roughly constant between 1911 and 1921, but actually declined in 1931. The depression in the 'thirties, presumably, caused a reduction in the employment of workers in the three industrial categories. There was, however, a noticeable increase in the period 1931-51. The opportunities provided by the Second World War and the location of a few industrial units in Jabalpur District for reasons of security were the principal factors underlying this increase in industrial population. The two Five Year Plans have further stimulated industrial development in the District. As a result, there has been a further increase in the industrial population between 1951 and 1961. In 1961 the total population of the District was 12,73,825 and 1,05,738 persons, *i.e.*, 8.3 per cent of the total population was engaged in industrial occupations. Of these 1,05,738 persons, 11,228 workers were employed in mining, quarrying, etc., and "household industry" and "manufacturing other than household industry" absorbed 52,658 and 41,852 persons, respectively.

OLD-TIME INDUSTRIES

Weaving.—Cotton hand-weaving is one of the oldest industries in the District. During the Census of 1901 there were 8,300 persons engaged in hand-weaving as against 14,230 persons in 1891. The principal weaving castes were Julaha, Koshtis, Kori and Mehra. The principal weaving centres of this industry were Jabalpur, Garha and Majholi. There were about 2,000 families of Julahas and Koshtas residing in Jabalpur city in 1901. The coloured *saris* generally worn by women, woven on a large scale, used to be sold for Rs. 2 or Rs 2-8-0 while better *saris* were sold at Rs. 4-8-0. A *khadi dhoti*. woven in almost all the big villages, was sold for Re. 0-10-0. The weavers generally got the money for purchasing yarn, etc., from the Banias. The development of cotton mill industry struck a death-blow to cotton hand-weaving industry. In 1931, out of a total of 510 earners belonging to Koshti caste only 264 pursued the traditional caste occupation. These figures indicate the movement away from the caste occupation in the changed situation. More recently the indigenous industry got a new lease of life through the installation of power-looms.

Cotton carpets or *daris* continue to be manufactured in Jabalpur Jail as of old. Woollen blankets are also made by the people of shepherd caste.

Dyeing.—The dyeing industry is also one of the old-time industries. Dyeing goes alongwith weaving industry as a matter

of course. This industry was being carried on in many villages usually situated on the banks of rivers. The chief centres of this industry were Jabalpur, Garha, Shahpura, Bijairaghogarh, Indrana, Kumhi, Ramkhiria, Majholi and Gosalpur. The principal castes engaged in this industry were known as Chhipas and Rangary. The name Chhipas is derived from the practice of printing or stamping the cloth they dye with various ornamental patterns. Indigenous dyes have now generally been replaced by imported chemical substances with which *saris, razais* (winter covers), *gadelas* (mattress), etc. are dyed and ornamental patterns printed. Mill-made printed cloth has, however, severely limited this trade in this District as elsewhere.

Metals, Gold and Silver Ware.—In the year 1901 the number of gold and silver workmen was 1,570 in the District and most of them lived at Jabalpur. The Sonars prepare gold and silver ornaments. Silver ornaments are usually cast. The industry faced very little competition from machine-made ornaments. More recently the workers have improved their skill in designing and preparation of ornaments.

Brass and Copper-Ware and Bell-Metal.—Household utensils out of brass, copper and bell-metal are manufactured in the District since olden days. The articles generally used to be prepared by the artisans, *i.e.*, Tameras, etc., on orders from the capitalist Mahajans. These Mahajans supplied raw-materials to the artisans and paid them at a fixed rate for their labour. Vessels were made out of brass sheets by hammering. Brass was obtained from Bombay. Prices of the vessels differed according to the thickness of the metal-sheet used. Panagar and Murwara were the principal centres of the brass and copper-working industries. Ornaments were made out of bell-metal and were worn by the poorer classes. Bell-metal dishes and pots manufactured at Bilahri, Bijairaghogarh and Barhi in Murwara tahsil were sent to Shahdol (Rewa) and Mirzapur.

Iron.—Iron industry was one of the important industries in the District. The ores were extensively worked and the method of smelting was by means of the small blast-furnaces. The annual average out-turn of iron from the year 1901 to 1908 varied from 300 to 400 tons. The industry afforded a living wage, though sometimes but a precarious one, and the profits were poor as the trade was unpopular. The notable feature of the industry in the District was that the furnaces, as a rule, used to be financed by iron-workers who did not themselves know anything about smelting but

gave the necessary advances for plant and material to the Agarias who actually worked the furnaces. These Agarias have always been in a menial position and are amongst the poorest of the poor. In 1903 two experts, Messrs Martin and Louis, were deputed to examine the iron ore deposits in the District. They found that the deposits in the District were altogether unsuitable to form a basis for a large manufacture. As the railways brought the indigenous hearths into an unequal struggle with the blast-furnaces of England, the industry languished.

The old-time activities of the village Lohar who manufactured agricultural implements. such as shares for ploughs, *panses* for *bakhars*, scythes, sickles, matchlocks and other goods, still continue. He also makes exes and pickaxes and domestic utensils, such as *tawas*, *karhais*, buckets etc. However, the raw-material, *i.e.*, iron used in the manufacture of these articles ceased to be the one manufactured locally. Imported iron is being used now. The chief importers are Bohras who sell the iron in retail to the Lohars.

Stone and Marble-Work.—In the year 1901 about 1,172 persons were engaged in stone and marble work. Marble, which is found at Bheraghat, was worked in Jabalpur town. The stones of Murwara were used for the construction of buildings and were also exported to the distant markets of Calcutta and Allahabad. Soft-stone (*Gaura Pathar*) found at Bheraghat and Sagra (Jabalpur tahsil) was used for the manufacture of stone plates, cups, *Mahadeo Lingas* and buttons. Grinding mills, mortars and statues were manufactured in Tewar from the stone found in Katanga in Jabalpur tahsil The art of stone-carving which at one time flourished practically in every village became extinct with the change of circumstances.

Bangle Manufacture.—Kacheras manufactured glass-bangles in the District. The Sisgars of Katangi also used to prepare small bottles of glass which were used in storing water of the Narmada river. Besides glass-bangles the Lakheras, *i.e.*, people who deal in articles of lac, manufactured lac-bangles.

Wood-work.—Carpenters living in towns prepared wooden furniture and the village Carpenter usually prepared wooden parts of agricultural implements. The wood-work of Jabalpur was supposed to be very good and some wood-carving was also done.

Leather-Work.—Manufacture of shoes of red or yellow coloured leather to meet the requirements of village flok is one of the

old-time industries in the District as elsewhere in the country. Shoes made at Bilhari had some reputation and were exported to Chhattisgarh and other places. The village Chamar also prepared leather ropes for rasing or lowering *motes*, neck-rope of leather for bullocks and *dholaks*.

POWER

The generation and distribution of electricity in the District has been undertaken by two Companies, *viz*, the Jabalpur Electric Supply Co., Ltd., Jabalpur and the Central India Electric Supply Co., Ltd., Katni. Till 1949 only Jabalpur and Katni towns had power supply, the extension of power supply to smaller towns and villages being a more recent development.

The Jabalpur Electric Supply Co., under the Managing Agency of Martin Burn Ltd., installed an electricity generation plant with oil-engines in the year 1927. These were subsequently removed in 1932 and 1938. The present power station has generating set driven by steam turbines. The installed capacity of the plant in 1951 was 9,250 K.W., which was raised subsequently to 13,250 K.W. in the year 1953. In 1961 the invested capital was Rs. 49,52,427 and the Company provided employment to about 339 workers on an average daily. The Company draws its coal supplies for generation of electricity from Burhar, Amlai, and Jhagrakhand collieries in Madhya Pradesh. The statement below gives the generation and sale of electricity by the Campany from 1950 to 1958.

(In Millions)

Year	K .W. Hrs. generated	K. W. Hrs. sold
1950	18.825	15.704
1951	21.289	17.367
1952	23.301	18.982
1953	25.271	20.564
1954	25.954	21.345
1955	27.858	23.558
1956	31.892	26.923
1958	46.157	39.985

The consumption of electricity supplied by the Company for different purposes has gradually increased.[1] The domestic consumption rose from 3.124 million K. W. Hrs, in 1950 to 6·704 million K. W. Hrs., in 1958. During these years commercial consumption rose from 1·176 million K. W. Hrs., to 2·757 million K. W. Hrs., and industrial consumption from 10.444 million K. W. Hrs., to 21·719 million K. W. Hrs. The increase in industrial consumption is symptomatic of the industrial development of the District.

The other electricity generation plant in the District at Katni was commissioned in the year 1937. The plant is under the management of the Central India Electric Supply Co., Ltd., Katni. The installed capacity of this plant in the year 1951 was 3,300 K. W., which was subsequently reduced to 2,800 K. W., in the year 1955. The Company had an invested capital of Rs. 12,35,248·35 as on the 28th February, 1961 and provided employment to about 155 workers on an average daily. The supplies of coal for generation of electricity are drawn from Burhar, Amlai and Chirimiri collieries in Madhya Pradesh. The figures for the generation and sale of electricity from the year 1950 to 1958 were as under.—

(In Millions)

Year		K. W. Hrs. generated	K. W. Hrs. sold
1950	..	8.864	7.027
1951		7.568	5.679
1952	..	7.125	5.653
1953	.	5.168	4.173
1954	..	7.969	6.717
1955	..	11.939	9.521
1956	..	10.692	8.259
1958	..	9.852	7.206

The consumption of electricity for domestic, commercial and industrial uses has risen as shown below.—

(In Million K, W. Hrs,)

	1950	1958
(1) Domestic	.295	.600
(2) Commercial	.470	1.620
(3) Industrial	6.254	5.020

Besides these two generating plants, the Kymore Cement Works has its own power generation plant. The plant was started in 1923, its installed capacity at present being 15,750 K. W. The plant meets the requirements of the Cement Company and supplies energy to Asbestos Cement Ltd., Kymore and three other private parties.

1. Appendix gives the details of consumption of electriciy for different purposes and the number of consumers from 1950 to 1958.

The development of power in Jabalpur District is the responsibility of the Madhya Pradesh Electricity Board which has its headquarters at Jabalpur. With a view to making cheap and abundant power supply available it was necessary to rationalise the power position in and around Katni and Jabalpur. To fulfil this objective the "Northern Grid Scheme" was sanctioned by the Central Provinces and Berar Government in 1947.

The area of electricity supply by the Jabalpur Electric Supply Co., Ltd., is limited to Jabalpur town (excluding Khamaria township), while the Central India Electric Supply Co., Ltd., supplies energy to Katni town only. The remaining areas of the District fall within the jurisdiction of the Madhya Pradesh Electricity Board which has license for the whole State. Till recently the Board did not have its own generating station in the District. The Board, therefore, purchased power from the Jabalpur Electric Supply Co., for distribution in areas not served by the aforesaid two Companies. Recently the power demand of the defence installations in Jabalpur and Katni increased considerably and, therefore, the Board has established a diesel power station with an installed capacity of 2,500 K. W. Supply from this station commenced in December, 1962. The diesel station is worked to supplement the power supply from the Jabalpur Electric Supply Co., Ltd. By the year 1961, there were four towns and 66 villages electrified in the District.

INDUSTRIES AND MANUFACTURES

Mining.—It has been stated earlier that the District is rich in a variety of mineral substances of economic value. The result of investigation and analysis in case of iron, manganese and copper has not been very promising. However, limestone, fuller's earth, pottery-clays and ochre are extensively mined and they support thriving industries in the District. Small amounts of steatite and baryte have been exported and some manganese-ore is extracted at Mansakra. Bauxite is another mineral with a substantial out-put and a future.

In 1956-57 the income from mining in Jabalpur District was Rs. 30.94 lakhs or nearly one per cent of the total District income amounting to Rs 3,233.36 lakhs. The average number of workers employed in mining in the District in 1960 was 7,854. These figures reveal that as a source of income mining occupies a comparatively insignificant place in the economy of the District. However, the minerals raised in the District are the basis of its industrial development and feed cement, ceramics, pottery and lime industries in the District.

An account of the production of the principal minerals of the District is given below.

Bauxite.—Bauxite is the chief raw-material used in the extraction of aluminium metal by electrolysis. This material being sufficiently available in the District, Katni was proposed as a possible site of an aluminium plant in Madhya Pradesh. This proposal has, however, not materialized so far. The Rihand Unit of an aluminium plant is to draw its supply of bauxite from deposits around Katni and Niwar. Bauxite is also used for the production of abrasives, refractories and high alumina cement.

In 1905 prospecting lease was taken out by various persons and a syndicate was formed to work the Katni deposits for the manufacture of hydrated alumina, alum and aluminium, cement and lime, pottery, fire-bricks, etc. In 1912 the Katni Cement and Industrial Company Ltd., was floated and works were erected at Katni for the manufacture of tiles, pipes, fire-bricks and bauxite-bricks. A substantial portion of bauxite areas around Katni and Niwar stand already leased out to various parties under regular mining leases. The reserves of leased area in Katni-Niwar-Sihora were put at 2,582,400 tons while those of unleased areas were estimated at 2,022,600 tons in the year 1958.

The production of bauxite in the District for some years is given below—

Year		No. of quarries	Quantity (in tons)	Value (in Rs.)
1948	..	8	14,222	1,40,775
1949	..	9	24,245	2,73,995
1950	..	8	26,653	2,08,486
1951	..	16	26,275	2,54,596
1952	..	11	22,708	19,686
1955	..	N.A.	31,760	2,36,234
1956	..	8	41,544	4,29,991
1957	..	10	48,191	4,67,628
1958	..	10	56,182	5.55,192
1959	..	10	45,560	3,01,565
1960	..	N.A.	57,037	6,31,041

The cost of production in Katni area averages Rs. 3.00 per ton and with partial mechanization it has been considered possible to bring down the cost to Rs. 1.81 and Rs. 2.12 per ton for compact and concretionary bauxite.[1]

Iron.—The iron-ore at Jauli is semi-ochreous haematite in which slightly schistose structure is often apparent. The ore has been largely quarried for raw material for paints, the quarry being 100 yards long by 50 yards broad and about 50 yards deep. Quarter of a mile north-east of the above quarry, there is another abandoned mine. The ore exposed here is not as rich as in the mine referred to above. The deposit has been worked since 1860 by Messrs Olpherts Ltd., who have necessary equipment for grinding, leviga-tion and separation. The beneficiated product is extensively used in the preparation of paints.

The production of iron-ore in the District from 1955 to 1960 was as under.—

Year	No. of mines		Quantity (in tons)	Value (inRs.)
	Working	Idle		
1955	..	N.A.	5,261	N.A.
1956 ..	3	..	28,735	N.A.
1957 .	3	..	28,629	2,40,144
1958 ..	3	.	10,343	56,289
1959 ..	..	3	Nil	Nil
1960 ..	1	4	2,033	6,127

There were three working mines of iron-ore during the years 1956 to 1958. In 1959 all the three mines remained idle, while in 1960 only one mine was working.

1. The Mineral Wealth of Madhya Pradesh, Vol. I, No. 4, July 1958, p. 101.

Clay.—Jabalpur clays are low in iron and carbonaceous matter, and for this reason, they have proved particularly suitable for making glass-furnaces both of the pot and tank types. For many years they have been used for mixing with local clays in the manufacture of glass smelting pots in Uttar Pradesh. At Jabalpur, stoneware is made from the white plastic-clays belonging to the Jabalpur series of the upper Gondwana rocks.

Fire-bricks are made at Jabalpur and Katni and special fire-bricks for railway boilers are made at Niwar in the District. Fire-bricks made at Katni use fire-clay and bauxite occurring at Tikuria in the rocks of Purana age.

In the hill west of Amdari, 14 miles south-west of Chandia on the Bilaspur-Katni branch of South-Eastern Railway, fire-clay occurs in considerable quantity in upper Gondwana strata. At Bamhori, Murwara tahsil there is an occurrence of china-clay which is being used in the manufacture of fire-bricks.

Production of these clays from the year 1955 to 1960 was as under.

Year	No. of mines		Quantity (in tons)	Value (in Rs.)
	Working	Idle		
1955 ..	N.A.	N.A.	40,279	3,39,960
1956 ..	15	3	65,871	4,66,819
1957 ..	18	4	81,965	4,94,965
1958 ..	13	7	92,928	5,72,157
1959 ..	16	6	84,199	5,69,827
1960 ..	16	15	72,927	6,24,292

Limestone.—In Jabalpur District limestone quarries are concentrated near Katni and Jukehi. Quarrying can be taken up to 165′ beyond which water becomes uncontrollable. In Jukehi-Kymore area at Bistara the limestone is greyish in colour, fine-grained, compact and dense. Jukehi limestone quarries are deep and the workings are from 40′ to 75′ in depth. The stone in Jukehi is thin and is found with layers of clay in between. The maximum thickness of layers of stone is about 8″ and there are also many layers of ½″ thickness. There is considerable water force in the quarries

which in the rainy season are closed down. In the working season they are dewatered by pumping. The quarries are worked exclusively by labour and hand tools.

At Katni the quarries are even deeper than at Jukehi, some of them as deep as 100′ to 120′. The water force in these quarries is extremely heavy, the chief cost of quarrying is that of pumping. The stone is found in three layers of 9′, 15′ and 22′. Katni quarries are nearly exhausted and the place is not expected to continue as an important centre of lime production for more than 10 years. The estimated cost of stone at pit's mouth, (exclusive of royalties, commission, overheads, profits and carting) is Rs. 4 to Rs. 5 per ton, while at Katni the cost is Rs. 6 to Rs. 6.50 per ton. The production of limestone in the District from 1951 to 1956 was of the following magnitude.

(In Tons)

Year	Quantity
1951	6,77,980
1952	7,22,852
1953	7,64,119
1954	8,40,332
1955	7,75,241
1956	8,44,553

In the year 1956 only 28 quarries were working and 30 quarries were reported to be idle. During the year 1957, 8,73,467 tons of limestone was raised from 29 quarries in the District, 31 quarries being idle. In the year 1958, 9,58,489 tons of limestone was raised from 42 quarries, while 23 quarries did not work during the year. In 1959, 35 lime quarries worked and produced 6,65,677 tons of limestone, while 41 quarries remained idle during 1959. In 1960, production was 9,73,939 tons from 36 quarries, 44 quarries remaining idle. Value of limestone from 1957 to 1960 was as under.

(In Rs.)

Year	Value
1957	32,20,919
1958	33,99,404
1959	22,79,372
1960	28,68,090

Managanese-Ore—The managanese-ore deposits in the District are relatively unimportant as compared to those found in other districts in the State. The ores of this District are of little value economically. The out-put figures from the year 1907 to 1927 are given below.

(In Tons.)

Year	Quantity
1907	7,100
1808	48
1910	300
1915	11
1916	576
1917	300
1918	65
1919-22	..
1923	55
1924	1,850
1925	1,901
1926	100
1927	181

From the year 1927 onwards for a considerable number of years there was no production of this mineral in the District.

The production of manganese-ore from 1952 to 1955 was—

(In Tons)

Year	Quantity
1952	4,494
1953	0,843
1954	805
1955	1,598

In the year 1956 there were 16 manganese mining leases in existence in the District out of which 10 were in operation, and 7,531 tons of ore was railed during the year. In the year 1957 out of 17 leases eight were idle and the ore railed was of the order of 4,791 tons. There were 14 leases in the District out of which 10 were working and 1,355 tons of ore was railed from the District during the year 1958. In the year 1959 out of the 14 leases only three were working and the production was 593 tons, while in 1960 there were four working mines out of a total of 15 with a production

of 344 tons. Value of the manganese-ore raised from 1957 to 1960 was—

(In Rs.)

Year	Value
1957	2,16,518
1958	13.553
1959	52,450
1960	43,386

Ochre —Red-ochre is being mined at Jauli for quite a long time. It is used in the manufacture of metallic paint. The production of this metal from the year 1951 to 1960 was as under.

(In Tons)

Year		Quantity
1951	..	245
1952	..	376
1953	..	538
1954	..	517
1955	..	N.A.
1956	..	571
1957	..	449
1958	..	353
1959	..	14
1960	..	1,122

Only one mine was worked from 1956 to 1960. The value of red and yellow-ochre raised from 1957 to 1960 was.—

(In Rs.)

Year		Value
1957	..	4,378
1958	..	2,294
1959	..	105
1960	..	8,412

Some other minerals raised in the District are steatite, soap-stone and red-oxide of iron. The deposits of talc around Bhera-ghat near the Marble Rocks on the Narmada river, about 13 miles West of Jabalpur, are the best known. Talc is used for a great

variety of purposes like paint, rubber, roofing, ceramics, insecticides, etc. In the year 1958, the despatch of talc from the District was 3,734 tons valued at Rs. 1,60,175 as against 4,923 tons of the year 1957 valued at Rs. 2,64,566. In 1959, 4,837 tons of talc valued at Rs. 1,84,525 were despatched from six mines in the District.

The number of mining leases for soapstone and red-oxide in the District with their production and value figures from 1957 to 1960 were.—

Soapstone

Year	No. of mines		Quantity (in tons)	Value (in Rs.)
	Working	Idle		
1957	5	5	4,223	1,77,066
1958	3	7	3,754	1,60,175
1959	6	2	4,837	1,84,525
1960	6	1	7,697	1,96,838

Red-Oxide of Iron

Year	No of mines		Quantity	Value
	Working	Idle	(in tons)	(in Rs.)
1957	2	..	1,633	73,469
1958	2	1	781	45,298
1959	1	..	2,106	94,756
1960	3	1	961.11	43,268

The average number of male and female workers in the mines in the District from the year 1957 to 1960 were:—

Year		Male	Female
1957	..	4,129	2,979
1958	..	4,467	3,158
1959	..	4,365	2,925
1960	..	4,587	3,267

Large-scale Industries

Cement.—One of the most important and oldest large-scale industries in the District is cement manufacturing. The Katni Cement and Industrial Co., at Katni and the Indian Cement Co, Porbunder were the pioneers in the field of cement manufacture in India.

The Katni Cement and Industrial Co., Ltd., was started as Public Limited Co, in the year 1912. The Factory is situated at Katni. With the exception of about 1/12th of the total, all the capital was invested by Indians. The Directors of the Company were all Indians. The authorised capital of the Company was Rs. 30,00,000 while subscribed and paid-up capital were both Rs. 29,92,130. The manufacture of cement actually commenced in January, 1915. The manufacturing capacity of the Company was 60,000 tons of cement per annum and 9,000 to 12,000 tons of fire-bricks. Only one quality of cement—"Castle" brand Portland Cement was manufactured by the Company. The actual manufacture of cement by this factory from 1915 was as under.

(In Tons)

Year		Quantity
1915	..	13,000
1916	..	31,264
1917	.	40,502
1918	..	36,730
1919	..	34,614
1920	..	33,761
1921	..	42,977
1922	..	43,820
1923	..	53,275

The raw materials required for the manufacture of cement are limestone, clay and gypsum. For the manufacture of one ton of cement, 1½ tons of raw material was required. The main supply of raw material was obtained from the quarries on the factory site and a small portion railed from another quarry, about 20 miles away. It was estimated that the supply of principal raw material, i.e., lime would last for 80 to 100 years.

Another cement manufacturing company, namely, the Jabalpur Portland Cement Company was floated in May, 1920. The Factory was located at Mehgaon, about 6½ miles from Jukehi Railway Station of Central Railways. The Factory commenced working during December, 1923. The total capacity of the Factory was 5,000 tons of cement per month. The authorised capital of the Company was Rs. 50,00,000 while subscribed and paid-up capital were Rs. 32,00,000 and Rs. 31,44,900, respectively. This Factory had its raw material supplies at about 400 yards from the Factory. In the year 1923 the out-put of the Factory was 20,887 tons of cement.

In addition to the above two factories, a third factory was started for the manufacture of cement at Kymore near Jukehi. The Company, known as the Central Provinces Porland Cement Co., Ltd., was floated in 1919. but it commenced manufacture of cement only from October, 1923. About 50 per cent of the shares of this Company were held by Indians and the rest by Europeans resident in India The capacity of the Factory in 1924 was 1,00,000 tons of cement annually. It was estimated that if this factory-plant worked to its full capacityy of 1,00,000 tons of cement per year it would ordinarily consume 1.34,000 tons of limestone, 44,000 tons of clay and 4 000 tons of gypsum. This Company had an authorised capital of one crore rupees and subscribed and paid up capital of Rs. 60 lakhs each.

The establishment of all the above factories in the District was made possible by the abundance and nearness of raw materials like limestone, clay and gypsum and vicinity to the coalfields and markets.

The outstanding event in the field of cement manufacture in the District was the amalgamation of the three cement factories into the Associated Cement Co, of Bombay. This took place in the year 1936. The direct consequence of this step towards the rationalization of the cement industry was the closure of two factories, one at Katni and the other at Mehgaon. According to the list of factories registered under the Factories Act, 1948, for the year 1960, there is now only one cement manufacturing unit in the District at Kymore.

The Associated Cement Co., Ltd, Kymore Works is situated at the foot of Kymore range and is about 14 miles from Jukehi Railway Station. It has a rated capacity of 5·76 lakh tons of cement per annum. The average number of workers employed in the Factory per day is 2,474. The capital investment in the

Works is about Rs. 3.60 crores. Under the Industries (Development and Regulation) Act, 1951, the approved expansion programme of Portland Cement was to raise the capacity from 5,30,000 tons to 5,63,000 tons till December, 1960. This expansion programme was completed by the Factory by September, 1960. The total installed capacity came to 5.759 lakh tons per annum. Further expansion programme from 5,63,000 tons to 7,50,000 tons per year was sanctioned. A new plant for producing 2,500 tons of white cement per annum is also proposed. The figures of cement production at Kymore Cement Works from the year 1956 to 1960 are as under—

(In Tons)

Year	Quantity
1956	3,69,064
1957	3,60,630
1958	3,14,921
1959	3,41,790
1960	4,14,604

Ceramics.—The establishment of potteries at Jabalpur was made possible because of the availability of clays or Kaolin in considerable quantities. For many years terra cotta, ornamental bricks and other articles were being manufactured from them. In 1880, specimens of local clays were taken to England by one J. H. Glass, the then Executive Engineer at Jabalpur, with the object of having the clays worked up in the pottery works at Stoke. It was found that Jabalpur clays were of excellent quality and well-suited for the manufacture of pottery-ware. On this basis of the raw material being available, proposals were made to the Local Administration in the years 1881 and later in 1886 for establishing pottery works in the Central Jail at Jabalpur, which did not materialize.

Burn and Co.—Existence of the Kaolin came to the knowledge of Messrs Burn and Co., of Calcutta, and they applied for a quantity of the clay to be sent to them for experiment at their Ranigunj Potteries. They found that the clays were admirably suited for the manufacture of drainage pipes, hospital requisites, battery jars and telegraph insulators. Messrs Burn and Co., Calcutta signified their intention of commencing pottery works at Jabalpur in 1889; and the Burn and Co., Jabalpur Pottery Works came into existence in the year 1892. It was once the premier pottery firm

in India. The current capital investment of the Company is of the order of Rs. 1,12,00,000. The Factory employs on an average 925 workers per day and has an installed capacity of 41,200 tons per annum of refractory materials, stone-ware, pipes and chemical stone-ware. A new unit of Burn and Co, was sanctioned under the Industries (Development and Regulation) Act, 1951 to be started at Niwar in the District for the manufacture of silica-bricks and refractories. Land and clay mines were acquired. The construction work was started in August, 1962 and has been in progress. The annual production of Burn and Co, which includes refractories, sewage pipes etc., for the years 1957 to 1959 was as under.

(In Tons)

Year	Quantity
1957	31,622
1958	39,164
1959	40,058

The Perfect Pottery Co., Ltd.—It is also one of the oldest industrial enterprises of the District. It was started in 1905 by a Manager from Messrs Burn and Company's pottery, the original capital (1½ lakhs) being supplied by Raja Gokuldas. In the beginning, the Factory manufactured only roofing tiles. Since then the Concern has been making steady progress. The Company now manufactures stone-ware, pipes and fittings for drainage and sewage disposal. These articles are in country-wide and regular demand from Government, Railways, Corporations, Municipalities, etc. Besides pipes the Pottery Works also manufacture refractory fire-bricks for the lining of high temperature furnaces in industry and in railway engines. The installed capacity of the Unit is 200 tons per month and employs 110 workers on an average daily. The total productive capital employed (fixed capital plus working capital) as on 31st December, 1958, was Rs. 23,74,375. Expansion programme of the Factory licensed under the Industries (Development and Regulation) Act, 1951 consisted of the manufacture of stone-ware pipes from 750 to 1,250 tons per month. This expansion programme was completed during the period ending December,

1960. The production of the Factory which included pipes, fittings and fire-bricks for the years 1957 to 1961 was as under.

(In Tons)

Year	Quantity
1957	16,146
1958	18,328
1959	18,000
1960	16,828
1961	18,072

The Associated Cement Co., Pottery Works.—The fire-bricks and pottery Works at Katni was started in the year 1912 simultaneously with a cement manufacturing plant by the Katni Cement and Industrial Co., Ltd. After the merger of the cement companies in 1936 the cement manufacturing section of Katni Works was closed in 1938. The Associated Cement Co., however, took up the available small refractories plant and continued the fire-bricks and potteries section in implementation of their policy of self-sufficiency. The availability of raw materials required for the manufacture of refractories at Katni ensured success. Satisfied with the quality of the refractories manufactured, the management of the Associated Cement Co., Ltd., took up the question of expanding production. As there was no scope for increasing the output of refractories beyond 500 tons per month with the old plant, the Associated Cement Co., built a new plant equipped with up-to-date machinery at Katni in the year 1956. The installed capacity of the Factory in 1960 was 1,000 tons per month of fire-bricks and fire-clay, and it employed on an average 215 persons per day. Refractory materials are used in rotary kilns, boilers and cupolas of the different cement factories of the Associated Cement Co., Ltd., spread all over India and Pakistan. The details of the expansion programme licensed under the Industries (Development and Regulation) Act, 1951 are as under.

Name of the production	Capacity licensed	License No. and date	State of progress
Fire-Clay and refractories.	From 6,000 tons to 13,200 tons per year.	L/37/12/54 dated 16-3-1954.	Expansion completed in 1956.
Do.	From 13,200 tons to 17,640 tons per year.	L/37/42/55 dated 10-9-1955.	Expansion completed on 4-2-1958.
Do.	From 17,640 tons to 30,000 tons per year.	L/34/(2)-12/60 dated 28-4-1960	Expansion completed on 4-2-1958.

Towards the completion of the expansion programme as licensed in April, 1960 the Company had placed orders for equipment required for the new kiln, for the dryer extension, as also for electrical motors and switchgear. The manufacture of conveying and other machinery was taken up and the construction of building structure was in progress. The total expenditure incurred on all these stages of expansion work amounted to Rs. 2 lakhs as on 31st December, 1960. The production figures of the Factory for the years 1957 to 1961 were as under.

(In Tons)

Year	Quantity
1957	12,769
1958	14,898
1959	12,140
1960	8,719*
1961	15,138*

Bricks and Tiles—Ishwar Industries Ltd, Niwar, a branch of Ishwar Pottery Works in Delhi State, was established in the year 1946. The Unit started its manufacturing activity in the year 1950. In the initial stages the Unit worked on a small-scale basis as there was no electric power supply in the area. In the year 1957 the Unit could secure electric energy which helped its development. In the year 1958, the productive capital (fixed capital and working capital) of the Factory was Rs. 4,40,331. It has a monthly licensed capacity of 1,016 tons. The Factory employs on an average 276 workers daily. The Unit has a fully equipped laboratory and manufactures different qualities of refractories. The products of the Factory include fire-bricks, fire-cement, fire-clay, mortars, hydraulic settings, high alumina cements, castable refractories, magnesia composition, insulating-bricks, etc. The details of expansion programme as licensed under the Industries (Development and Regulation) Act, 1951 till December, 1960 was as under.

Name of the product	Capacity licensed	License No.
1. Fire-Bricks	From 300 tons to 1500, tons per month.	L/37/65/56 dated 14-6-1956.
2. Silica-Bricks	300 tons per month	"
3. Insulated-Bricks ..	100 tons per month	"
4. Stone-wares	300 tons per month	"
5. Stone-ware pipes ..	From 300 tons to 600 tons per month.	"
6. Stone-ware jars and containers	From 30 tons to 50 tons per month.	L/34/(4)N-1/57 dated 1-7-1957.

*Figure excluding for five months; Statistical Abstract of Madhya Pradesh 1961-62, Directorate of Economics and Statistics, Madhya Pradesh.

The production of the Factory for the years 1957 to 1961 was as under.

(In Tons)

Year	Quantity
1957	9,347
1958	9,942
1959	9,701
1960	6,855
1961	5,960

Besides Ishwar Industries Ltd., Niwar, there are two more bricks and tiles making factories in the District registered under the Factories Act, 1948. They are Kusner Tile Works, Kusner, P. O. Burhagar and New Fire Bricks and Potteries, Katni. Kusner Tile Works was established in 1906. It produces roofing tiles and bricks. In 1960 it employed 55 workers daily on an average. The New Fire-Bricks and Potteries was established in 1958 and licensed for a monthly production of 1,000 tons of fire-clay refractories. The present capacity is 550 tons per month. The Factory employs on an average 47 workers daily.

In addition to the programme of expansion of existing cement and pottery manufacturing units in the District, licences were issued under the Industries (Development and Regulation) Act, 1951, for the establishment of new units, especially for the manufacture of fire-bricks and fire-clay. Messrs S.N. Sunderson and Co., New Delhi, was granted a licence on the 4th October, 1955 for the establishment of a factory at Katni, for the manufacture of fire-bricks and fire-clay, with a capacity of 12,000 tons per day. Messrs Universal Refractories Co., Ishwar Nagar, New Delhi was issued a licence on the 7th November, 1960 to start a new unit at Katni for the manufacture of high alumina cement, refractories and castables with a capacity of 6,000 tons for each product per year. Messrs Premier Refractories of India Pr., Ltd., 10. Alipur Road, Delhi was granted a licence on the 7th November, 1960 to start a new unit at Murwara, for the manufacture of fire-clay bricks (capacity 3,600 tons per year), high alumina motars and masses. By

December, 1960 order for plant and machinery was placed by this Firm, factory lay out was planned and construction work was started. Power was also being obtained. Messrs Amar General Refractories Ltd., Ishwar Nagar, New Delhi was also granted a licence on the 9th November, 1960 for the establishment of a new unit for the manufacture of magnesite refractories, magnesite chrome refractories, etc.

Asbestos Products.—Asbestos Cement Ltd., Kymore was established in 1934. The Unit is engaged in the manufacture of Asbestos Cement sheets and accessories, pipe-fittings and specials. Raw material for the manufacture of the products is obtained from South Rhodesia, Canada and India. The Factory provides employment to about 1,698 workers daily. The installed capacity of the Factory is 500 long tons per month and production in the year 1959 was 50,319 long tons.

Electric Machinery, Apparatus, Appliances and Supplies.—The Government Posts and Telegraphs Workshop at Jabalpur is an important large-scale industrial establishment in the District engaged in the manufacture of tele-communication stores. This is a Government of India industrial establishment under the Ministry of Communications. This Workshop was established during the last War in the year 1942 as a duplicate Workshop for reasons of security. It is at a distance of three miles from Jabalpur Railway Station and half a mile from Madan Mahal Railway Station. The Workshop is located along with the offices of the Controller of Telegraph Stores, Accounts Officer, Telegraph Stores and Workshops, and Resident Audit Officer, Telegraph Stores and Workshop, on a land measuring 30-66 acres costing about Rs. 2.17 lakhs. The total cost of the buildings in the premises is Rs. 28 lakhs. The break-up of the value of the assets of the Workshop in 1961 was as under.

	Value (in Rs.).
1. Land	5,61,695.00
2. Building	42,14,947.00
3. Plant and Machinery	27,61,930.00

The Workshop provides employment daily to 1,388 industrial workers on an average and has nearly 334 persons on its regular gazetted and non-gazetted establishment. The entire production of the Workshop is used by the Posts and Telegraphs Department.

Textile.—Textile industry in the District is quite old. As early as 1885, the Gokuldas Ballabhadas Spinning and Weaving Mills was established at Jabalpur. The Mills provided employment to about 700 men, women and children. The Mill had 277 looms, 15,208 spindles, and 152 more looms with necessary machinery were added during the earlier years of the present century. The average annual production of yarn was 12,19,849 lbs. and of cloth 5,86,538 lbs. valued at Rs. 4,67,534 and Rs. 2,98,924, respectively. The capital employed by the Mills was of the order of Rs. 8 lakhs. It appears that in the 'forties of the present century the Mill had gone out of existence, as there is no mention of this Mill as a registered factory in the Administrative Report of the Chief Inspector of Factories for the year 1940. However, after nearly 20 years, licence was granted under the Industries (Development and Regulation) Act, 1951, for setting up a textile unit at Jabalpur. As a result, Shri Krishna Dev Cotton Mill was started at Napier town, Jabalpur in the year 1959 for the manufacture of cotton and staple cloth, with an installed capacity of 51 powerlooms. The Factory actually started manufacture on the 15th July, 1959. The Factory manufactured 62,562 yards of cloth from July, 1959 to December, 1959, and 11,89,101 yards of cloth from January to December, 1960. In the year 1961, the Mills manufactured 11,08,334 metres of cloth.

Ordnance Factories.—Among other large-scale industries in the District, besides those already discussed earlier, may be included the Gun-Carriage Factory at Jabalpur, Ordnance factories at Khamaria and Katni. These factories, except the Gun-Carriage Factory, were established in the District in connection with the Second World War efforts. The Gun-Carriage Factory was started in the year 1904 when the three Gun-Carriage factories at Madras, Fatehgarh and Bombay were closed. They are well-equipped and manufacture gun parts, mountings, shells and a variety of other products for war purposes. A considerable volume of high precision work is done in these factories and they have a number of general duty and high-precision machines installed in them.

Since Independence, besides achieving self-sufficiency in regard to the manufacture of arms, ammunition, etc., priority has also been given to the civilian needs in the programme of Defence

Production Organization. Accordingly, the Jabalpur Factory has forged connecting rods for locomotives, manufactured mountaineering equipment and helped municipal organisations by manufacturing water and power metres.

The manufacture of trucks is also undertaken by the Factory. The first truck named "Shaktiman" was manufactured in the Factory in the year 1959. In the coming five years sufficient number of trucks and 90 per cent of their accessories will be manufactured. In February, 1962 it was declared that production of jeeps will be undertaken in the defence establishment at Jabalpur in collaboration with "Nishan" Company of Japan. A specimen of the Jeep to be manufactured was on exhibition in the Industries Fair organized at Delhi in the year 1961. Besides the Gun-Carriage Factory at Jabalpur and two ordnance Factories at Khamaria and Katni, there are four other defence establishments in the District registered under the Factories Act, 1948, *viz*., (1) C. O. D. Workshop Stores, Sub-Depot, Jabalpur, (2) Technical Development Establishment (Weapons), Jabalpur, (3) Technical Development Military Explosives, Khamaria, (4) 506, Army Base Workshop, Jabalpur.

Simplex Umbrella Industries.—This Factory started working in the year 1960 and is manufacturing umbrella ribs. The Unit has an installed capacity for the manufacture of 2,000 ribs per annum. It provides employment to about 118 workers daily.

The National India Rubber Works.—There are two units of the Works registered under the Factories Act, 1948. Both these are located at Katni. Originally the Unit was located at Sialkot (Pakistan) in 1934, but shifted to Katni after Partition in 1948 and was registered in the year 1949. Both the units manufacture surgical, pharmaceutical, sports, and laboratory rubber goods, etc. Its paid-up capital is little over Rs. 1.81 lakhs and the investment in fixed assets amounts to Rs. 1.21 lakhs. The Factory provides employment on an average to 164 workers daily. The value of goods sold by the Company from the year 1957-58 to 1961-62 was as under.—

(In Rs.)

Year	Value
1957-58	6,73,999.18
1958-59	6,11,632.82
1959-60	7,14,282.50
1960-61	7,78,326.68
1961-62	9,48,552.26

From among the closed factories mention may be made of the Onama Glass Works, Jabalpur. The glass factory was started as early as 1937-38. The Unit continued production till 1958 when, because of some financial difficulties, the Factory was closed for sometime. In the year 1960, however, it employed on an average 16 workers daily.

Paints and Varnishes.—The Firm of Olpherts Private Ltd., engaged in the manufacture of metallic paints, had become 100 years old in the year 1960. The founder of this pioneering enterprise was W. G. Olpherts. The establishment of this industry was made possible by the availability of rich deposits of haematite ore (red-oxide of iron) in Jauli village in Sihora tahsil of the District. W. G. Olpherts acquired some land in the year 1860 on the banks of Katni river and set up three *Pani Chukkys* for the manufacture of red-oxide. From these humble beginnings the Firm entered into an era of slow but steady growth. The original name of the Firm was Olpherts Metallic Paint which was retained till 1918, but the expanding activities of the Company necessitated a change in status and Olpherts Metallic Paint Works became a Limited Company. Soon after, there was further expansion and the Factory as it stands now took shape during this time. Steam power came to be increasingly used. The Amua and Kulkadia mines were leased for yellow and red-ochres. The name of the firm was changed and it was called Olpherts Paints and Products Ltd., under which name it continued to function till 1920. It was later simplified to Olpherts Ltd., in 1928.

The year 1945 saw a big change in the history of the Firm. Beed Brothers who were well-known in the barytes trade and who have had dealings with Olpherts in their capacity both as paint manufacturers and as explorers of ochres throughout the world, took over the Factory. New life was put into the working of the institution. Levigation vats, the biggest in Asia, began buzzing with activity. The intimate knowledge of the Beed Brothers in the trade of minerals required by the paint and allied industries enabled them to give a fillip to the working of the Olpherts Factory at Katni. Production was diversified and new lines introduced. The manufacture of cement colours was also begun. Residential quarters for workers were also commissioned at this time. The Factory at present is under the management of N. B. Beed. In

the year 1958, the Factory provided employment on an average to 79 workers daily. The invested capital of the Company in the business was of the order of Rs. 1,34,618 in the year 1958. The figures of production for four years from 1955 are as under.

(In cwt.)

Year		Quantity	
		Red-oxide Powder	Yellow/Red-ochre Powder
1955	..	21,892	16,901
1956	..	14,234	10,302
1957	..	19,693	10,705
1958	..	22,017	8,022

Small-Scale and Cottage Industries

Besides the large-scale industrial establishments mentioned in the foregoing pages there is a large number of small-scale and cottage units engaged in a variety of industries. Many of these industries are comparatively new acquisitions of the District, having been established during and after the Second World War.

Bidi Manufacturing.—Prominent among the small-scale industries is the manufacture of bidis. This is carried on both as a cottage industry and in factory establishments. Prior to 1948 the bidi manufacturing establishments were governed by the Unregulated Factories Act, 1937. Since 1948, the provisions of the Factories Act, 1948 have been made applicable to this industry. In 1950, there were eight bidi factory establishments in the District falling within the purview of the Factories Act. The number of such establishments rose to 24 in 1956, but had declined to 21 two years later. In the year 1958 these 21 factories employed on an average 1,160 workers daily. The number of factory establishments in 1960 continued to be 21. Of these, 16 establishments, scattered all over the District, are owned by the firm Mohanlal Hargovinddas. Bidi rolling is both a full-time and part-time occupation in the villages. Contractors supply the villagers with *tendu* leaves, tobacco and thread and receive back a definite number of bidis against the material supplied. According to 1951

Census 10,139 workers were engaged in the manufacture of bidis in this District. Tobacco for the manufacture of bidis is generally imported from Gujrat and Nipani in Belgaum District. *Tendu* leaves are obtained locally in the District as also from other areas in the State. This District exports bidis to Uttar Pradesh and Delhi in large quantities.

Lime Manufacturing.—Lime manufacturing is another important small-scale industry. Lime is a raw material for the manufacturing of cement. The lime works are located at Katni, Jukehi and Mehgaon. In 1960 there were 21 factories registered under the Factories Act. Besides these, there were six smaller production units. These 27 factories provide employment to about 1,682 workers daily. Dyer Stone Ltd., Co., Katni, is the oldest lime manufacturing Unit in the District. It started production in 1862. This Factory employs the largest number of workers, approximately 200 workers, daily. Other factories employing about 150 workers daily are Umesh Nath Awadesh Nath Lime Works, Katni, N. M. Dubhash and Sons, Katni and Amheta Lime Works, Jukehi.

Engineering.—There is considerable activity in the District in the sphere of general and jobbing engineering, foundry and moulding, manufacture of metal products and electrical engineering, etc. In the General and Jobbing Engineering field there are 14 establishments of which six are registered under the Factories Act. Among them, these 14 factories employ between 350 to 400 workers. Two of the 14 units are located at Katni and the rest, except one, *i.e.*, A.C.C. Engineering Institute, Kymore, are located at Jabalpur. Sikhar Industries, Katni, manufactures conduit-pipes, while Associated Metal Works, Katni manufacture safety razors. Three registered factories at Jabalpur, *viz.*, Simplex Engineering and Foundry Works, Mahakoshal Engineering and Foundry Works and Singh and Co., besides casting ferrous and non-ferrous metal, manufacture boring machines, agricultural equipment, tractor and plough parts, gears and machine parts, lathes, drills, etc. Others manufacture children's parks equipment, motor truck bodies, rivets, brass metric weights and measures, nuts, bolts, machine screws, etc.

Thirty-seven units, 36 at Jabalpur and one at Katni, are engaged in the production of metal containers and steel trunks, steel furniture, etc. Among them they provide employment to about

392 workers. Only four of these use power and one, *viz.*, Associated Metal Industries, Jabalpur is registered under the Factories Act. These units manufacture steel trunks, agricultural equipment and steel articles for household use, *e.g.*, milk-pots, tubs, shelves, chairs, almirahs, etc. Lok Udyog Sahakari Samiti and Vishwakarma Co-operative Society, Jabalpur are Co-operative ventures in this field. Lok Udyog Sahakari Samiti has a membership of 55 and started production in the year 1960. Another co-operative, Vishwakarma Cutlery Co-operative Society, Jabalpur which started production in 1960, specialises in the manufacture of cutlery articles.

There are 19 establishments in the District specialising in welding. Of these 11 are located at Katni and eight at Jabalpur. Brass utensils are manufactured in three establishments located at Jabalpur. The oldest of these, Purushottamlal Works, Ghamapur, started production in 1947. Seven units are engaged in silver, gold and steel wire-drawing. The only unit at Jabalpur is engaged in M.S.H.B. wire-drawing while four at Katni specialise in gold and silver wire-drawing. Steel wire-drawing for the manufacture of wire-nails is carried on at Katni in two other establishments. Three units are engaged in the manufacture of umbrella sticks and umbrellas. There are four electroplating establishments located at Jabalpur. The oldest of these four started working in the year 1951.

Electrical goods.—In the field of manufacture of electrical goods like fans, coolers, scientific and laboratory equipments, there are six establishments in the District, all of which are located at Jabalpur. Indian Electrical Industries, Naya Bazar, Jabalpur which started working in 1956 is engaged in the manufacture of electric coolers and fans. This establishment engages about 20 workers. Ajit Electric Works, Marhatal, Jabalpur, manufactures dynamo and motor parts. New Engineering Co., Jabalpur carries on welding of transformers and electric motors. Universal Engineering and Scientific Works, Cantonment, Jabalpur specialises in the manufacture of scientific and laboratory equipment. Manufacture of rikshaw-hubs, and axles and electric fans is undertaken by Kiran Fan Industries, Jabalpur All these establishments employ about 50 workers.

Sewing machine parts are manufactured by four establishments at Jabalpur, one of which started work in the year 1950, two in

1954 and the fourth in 1956. The names of the establishments are.

(1) Hindustan Sewing Machine Industries, 444 Galgala, Jabalpur,

(2) Saggu Sewing Machine Industries, Marhatal, Jabalpur,

(3) Singh Sewing Machine Industries, Marhatal, Jabalpur, and

(4) Sardar Sewing Machine Co., Cantonment, Jabalpur.

Transport.—Jabalpur is well-connected by road and the manufacture and repair of transport equipment is a thriving industry in the District. In 1960 five factories for motor vehicle repairs were registered in the District under the Factories Act. Two of these, *viz*., C. P. Transport Services Ltd., and C. P. Transport Services are fairly large establishments and one is a Military Transport Workshop. Besides the five registered factories, there are 36 industrial establishments engaged in general automobile repairing, manufacture of spare parts, reconditioning, spray painting, etc. These are small establishments and employ about 132 workers daily.

Saw-milling.–Jabalpur city has emerged as one of the main markets for timber business. It is fed by supplies from the forests in Jabalpur and neighbouring districts. The first saw-mill to be registered under the Factories Act appeared in the year 1922. In 1960, however, the number of saw-mills registered under the Act was 62. Of these, six are located at Katni while others are located at Jabalpur. The total number of mills, inclusive of registered factories is 92, of which only eight employ more than 25 persons. The total employment provided by these 92 saw-mills is approximately 1,200.

Along with the saw-milling industry there is a prospering furniture-making industry in the District. In 1960 there were three establishments registered under the Factories Act, 1948, classified under the industrial group Joinery and General Wood-Working. The total number of establishments, inclusive of the registered ones, engaged in the manufacture of furniture, etc., is 29. Out of these 29, 17 units work without power, while 12 use power. All these units employ about 400 workers daily.

Printing Press.–The District has 60 printing and litho presses, of which 14 are registered under the Factories Act, as per list of 1960. All these presses are located at Jabalpur proper. There

are three litho presses, *viz.*, Shri Sakti Fine Arts Litho Printing Press, National Litho Printing Press and India Fine Arts Litho Press. Some of the presses are engaged in book publishing and the printing of newspapers and magazines, but most of them do job-work. From the point of view of employment, Yugdharma, Nav Bharat and Singhai Mojilal and Sons are important. Among them these three employ about 150 workers out of approximately 400 persons employed in all presses.

Food Industries.– Flour, oil and *dal* mills are the important industries in this group. The first flour and oil mill in the District was established as early as 1887. This mill manufactured over 25,000 maunds of flour every day. In 1960 Jabalpur General Industries Ltd., Roller Flour Mills, Jabalpur, was the only registered factory in the District employing about 30 workers daily. In all there are 244 smaller flour-mills in the District employing a total of 278 persons daily. These grind wheat into flour for their customers for household consumption. An oil-mill registered under the Factories Act first appeared in 1924. In 1960 there were eight registered oil-mills, but four of them remained closed during the year. The total number of oil-mills, including the registered factories, is 47 and these employ 319 workers daily. It was in the year 1948 that the first *dal*-mill appeared in the list of registered factories. In 1960 the number of registered *dal*-mills was 13. Inclusive of the registered mills the District has a total of 35 *dal*-mills employing slightly over 300 persons daily. None of these, however, is big enough to employ more than 25 persons daily. Besides the flour, oil and *dal*-mills, there are four unregistered establishments at Jabalpur which manufacture syrups, vinegar, fruit-juice, etc.

Miscellaneous.–With the availability of electric power for industrial use hand-loom weavers in the District have installed power-looms. A total of 819 power-loom establishments provide employment to 1,828 persons. There are four stone-dressing and crushing units at Jabalpur which manufacture soapstone powder. Of these Sial Soapstone Works, established in 1930, and Dharatidhan Private Ltd., started in 1959, are registered factories. In addition to soapstone powder the latter manufactures dolomite powder. The District has 14 soap manufacturing units and two silicate manufacturing units, one each at Katni and Jabalpur. Bharat Plastic Industries, Katni. manufactures plastic goods, while Chijurmal Nainumal, Jabalpur and Popular Plastic Industries, Jabalpur, manufacture plastic baby-toys and plastic name-plates, respectively. Camphor tablets are also manufactured by two units

at Jabalpur. There are three registered and four unregistered factory establishments in the District engaged in the manufacture of ice and providing cold-storage facilities. Of these seven units, three are located at Katni and the remaining four at Jabalpur. These establishments employ about 125 workers daily. Among the registered factories, Narbada Ice Factory was established in 1945 and Mazda Ice and Cold Storage in the year 1950.

The District has two tanneries at Katni which manufacture sole-leather and 17 other leather-goods manufacturing establishments at Jabalpur. They manufacture shoes, leather suit-cases, bags, and leather equipments for the use of Police and Forest Department personnel.

INDUSTRIAL POTENTIAL AND PLANS FOR FUTURE DEVELOPMENTS

The industrial potentialities of any tract or region depend upon the richness of its natural resources, industrial raw materials, availability of power, facilities for transport and communications, etc. The central location of the District in the Country and the existing facilities for transport are distinct advantages. It is rich in a variety of non-metallic mineral substances and has potentialities for mining of bauxite. It is, however, handicapped by the poorness of its coal and metallic mineral resources. Yet another important factor is the forests of the District which supply raw materials and form the basis of a number of thriving industries.

From the foregoing account of mining and industries in this Chapter it is clear that the District abounds in natural resources necessary for industrial development, awaiting systematic exploitation. The predominance of agricultural population in the District emphasises the need for exploitation of these resources for rapid industrialization. The forests of the District and the neighbourhood support a fairly large number of saw-mills, manufacture of furniture and bidi industry. Besides these products, the forests in the District supply such materials as gum, resin, honey, wax, *khus*, etc., which can be exploited commercially. Among the forest based small-scale industries the National Council of Applied Economic Research, which conducted a Techno-Economic Survey of Madhya Pradesh in the year 1958, suggested the establishment of wood-seasoning plant, teak wood veneer plant, joinery plant, a

plant for stationery and other wooden products and myrobalan extraction plants in the District.

The District abounds in mineral wealth. About 20 different mineral substances are found in the District, prominent among them being limestone, dolomite, bauxite, barytes, white-clay, glass-sand, etc. Other minerals like copper, lead-ore, felspar, flourspar, etc., though available in the District, are not found to be sufficient for commercial exploitation. Indication of good grade bauxite over several laterite-capped hills in Murwara tahsil of Jabalpur District has been recently noted. In view of these deposits and other high-grade bauxite-ores around Katni and Niwar, there is a case for the location of Alumina Extraction Plant in the District. At present the Rihand Unit of Aluminium Plant draws its supplies of bauxite from Katni and Niwar areas of the District.

The District is well-known for its limestone deposits and refractory-clays the existence of which enabled the establishment of cement industry and potteries in the District. Attempts for the exploitation of these minerals are being made through the expansion of manufacturing capacities of the existing units in the District, reference to which has already been made earlier.

On the basis of conservatively estimated 49 million tons of iron-ore deposits in the Kanhwara hill, nearly 10 miles north-east of Murwara, and also the availability of limestone near about Katni and water resources of Katni river, a case for the establishment of an Iron and Steel Plant at Katni was also presented. The Techno-Economic Survey of Madhya Pradesh also suggested the establishment of a Steel Plant at Katni with an annual capacity of 1·5 million tons. Other raw materials required for the manufacture of steel like manganese-ore, refractory materials, flourspar, bauxite, etc., are also available in the District.

Dolomite and glass-sand in the District are the raw materials for the manufacture of glass. One glass manufacturing unit is working in the District since 1937-38 with a short closure in the year 1958.

The District also offers at least two good sites for the generation of hydro-electricity, *viz*, Bheraghat and Bargi. These can ease the problem of power for industrial uses.

Existence of copper deposits at Sleemanabad. and lead and silver at certain places hints towards the necessity of a more intensive geological survey of the region.

In view of the availability of soapstone the Techno-Exconomic Survey of Madhya Pradesh brought out the possibility of establishing a soapstone plant in the District with an approximate investment of Rs. 3.50 lakhs. The Survey also recommended the establishment of raw material oriented industries in the District for the manufacture of calcium carbide, cement, hardboards and tanning extract.

In the field of chemical industries a big leap has been taken by the District, when the foundation stone of the Jabalpur unit of the Leiner Knit Gelatine Co., Pr., Ltd., was laid at the 10th mile of Jabalpur-Bheraghat road in April, 1961. The Factory is the first of its kind in the Country. The Leiner Knit Gelatine Co., will produce 2,000 tons a year of edible pharmaceutical and technical gelatine and also bone-glue using sinews for the raw materials. The Company has an authorised capital of Rs 50 lakhs. One of the main products will be gelatine for bank-note paper. Products of the Factory are essential for paper, rayon, cloth and film industries. The Factory would meet the demand from the proposed manufacture of bank-notes at Hoshangabad.

During the Second Five Year Plan period the construction work of 40 sheds for Industrial Estate at Jabalpur was completed and work of water-supply, drainage. etc., was started. In the Third Five Year Plan period, the Industrial Estate at Jabalpur is to be further expanded and work regarding the Industrial Estate at Katni is to be taken up. A model pottery centre and a fruit preservation centre will also be started and a dye house will be established at Jabalpur during the Third Plan period.

LABOUR AND EMPLOYERS' ORGANISATIONS

The story of different industries in the District has been unfolded in the foregoing pages of the Chapter. Trade unions have grown alongside the industries of the District. It is worth noting that practically every industry in the District has its workers' union. There are certain industries like potteries, bidi-making, electricity generation, ordnance factories, etc., in which more than one trade union of the workers exist. There are 66 different trade unions[1] in the District registered under the Indian Trade Unions Act. It

1. The list of these unions with their affiliations and memberships is given in the Appendix.

is worth noting, however, that all these unions are working only for the protection of wages and working conditions of the workers in the industry. Except for one Union, *i.e.*, Jabalpur Bijlighar Panchayat, Jabalpur, labour welfare activities like education. recreation, health, etc., are not being carried on by any of the other unions. The welfare activities of Bijlighar Karmachari Panchayat consists of recreation activities like *bhajans*, *kauwallis*, and weekly recitation of *Ram Charit Manas*, in-door out-door games, sports events, cultural programmes like drama, celebrations of National Days, etc. Educational activities of the Panchayat include library, adult education, organisation of talks on Labour problems and ethics, co-operation, better working, higher productivity, civic rights, responsibilities, etc.

In contrast with the union activities of workers there are no Employers' Organizations in the District, except that of bidi merchants. The Bidi Merchants Organization restricts its activities to the safeguarding of commercial interests of the employers. It is worthy of note, however, that the employers in the organized industries like cement, potteries, electricity generation, textiles, etc., are making available to their employees labour welfare facilities other than those provided under the welfare enactments like Employees' State Insurance, Employees' Provident Fund and those under the Factories Act, 1948.

The Jabalpur Electricity Supply Co., has set up a Social Welfare Fund for their employees on a voluntary basis.

The Asbestos Cement Ltd., Kymore has a canteen for workers, where tea and snacks are sold at cost price A substantial number of workers in the Factory have been provided with electrified residential accommodation. A full-fledged middle school exists for the children of employees which is attended by about 300 children. There is also a scheme to defray in part the expenses incurred by the employees on the education of their children receiving secondary education outside. The Company has its own hospital with a qualified doctor, compounders, midwife, etc. There are seven beds in the Hospital both for male and female patients. The treatment is provided free to the employees and their families. There is a Sports and Recreation Club for the employees of the Company. The Club provides newspapers, magazines, library, radio-set, amplifier, loud-speakers, etc. Annual sports are held regularly and prizes are distributed to the competitors. Free cinema show is also given once in a month to the employees. The employees in the Company have a Consumers' Co-operative Society where food-grains and other necessaries of life are made available at

reasonable rates. The Management has provided a building to house the Society and provides transport for bringing supplies from the market, which is 28 miles away.

The Telegraph Workshop, Jabalpur, which is a Government of India establishment, provides other amenities besides providing all statutory welfare facilities. For example, Co-operative Credit Society of the employees which is functioning from the year 1953 advances loans to the members at low rates of interest. Here is a Labour Welfare Fund Organization which contributes towards two daily newspapers. There is an adult education class working with an average attendance of 15 employees daily. Residential accommodation is also provided to a certain number of workers near the Workshop. There is one primary school and one Montessori school. The Montessori school is managed by the employees of the Telegraph Store Yard. The primary school is housed in residential quarters and the Montessori school in its own building in the residential area. The employees of the Workshop have been running a co-operative clinic for sometime. This clinic proved itself to be very useful to the workers. Under this scheme a subscriber who should be an employee of the Workshop pays an annual subscription of Rs. 6. In return he is assured of medical treatment. The Medical Officer of the Workshop attends the Clinic in the evening.

The Burn and Co., provides for its workers rent-free quarters or rent in lieu thereof. The recreation facilities include sports and other club activities.

The Ishwar Industries Ltd., Niwar provides free unfurnished residential accommodation, free water-supply and co-operative store facilities to their workers.

The Perfact Potteries Ltd., have laid out a colony for their staff and factory employees. Practically all workers reside in the colony and are provided with rent-free quarters. There is a well-equipped dispensary and a primary school in the colony.

The Kymore Cement Works, Kymore, has developed a colony into a prosperous industrial township, where the following amenities are provided by the management.

(a) A high school for boys and girls.

(b) A primary and middle school giving free education to children and dependents of employees.

(c) A Montessori school.

(d) An up-to-date 18 bedded hospital with an X-Ray plant.

(e) Two public cinema-houses where films are exhibited by the management by their projector for their own employees.

(f) A club with a building and play grounds.

(g) A children's park.

On the side of the Government, the Labour Department had started a first Labour Welfare Centre in the year 1953 in the Sarai area of the City of Jabalpur, which caters to the needs of the workers of Burn and Co., Potteries and the employees of the Power House, together numbering about 1,500. In the year 1956 another Labour Welfare Centre was started in the Gohalpur area of the City where there is a concentration of bidi workers and weavers numbering about 2,000. The third Labour Welfare Centre was started in the year 1960 in the Labour Colony area of the Perfect Potteries.

The activities carried on at these centres include in-door and out-door games, programmes for entertainment, adult education, library facilities, music, drama and cinema-shows, talks on subjects of interest for Labour, competitions in sports, anti-drinking propaganda, drives for cleanliness, etc.

Besides these activities, common to all centres, the Sarai area Centre started a sewing-class on the 15th August, 1958, where a trained instructor is appointed to teach sewing and embroidery work to the female workers and female members of the employees' families.

Free milk is distributed to the workers' children daily at Sarai and Gohalpur Centres. The distribution of free milk is mainly on the assistance received in the shape of powder milk under the programme of American Aid.

Expenditure on all these activities has been borne by the Labour Department of the Government from the funds provided under the Labour Welfare Schemes of Labour Department.

The statutory Labour Welfare provisions under the Factories Act, 1948, broadly consist of cleanliness, drinking-water facilities, provisions of latrines and urinals, washing facilities, first-aid and medical aid, canteens, etc. All factories registered under the Factories, Act, 1948 which numbered about 216 in the year 1960 have to comply with these provisions of the Factories Act.

Besides this enactment the Minimum Wages Act, 1948 guarantees minimum wages to the workers in the Scheduled Industries like bidi-making, *dal*, rice and flour mills, stone-breaking, oil-mills, local bodies, etc. About 365 establishments employing 16,301 workers in the District have been covered under the provisions of this Act.

In the sphere of Labour Welfare there are two other enactments, *viz.*, Employees' State Insurance Act, 1948 and Employees' Provident Fund Act, 1952. The Employees' State Insurance Scheme framed under the Act was made applicable only to Jabalpur Centre in the District on the 28th July, 1957. Medical care is being provided to the insured persons. Restricted medical care to the families of the insured persons was extended with effect from the 26th January, 1959. Advice and guidance on family planning is also given to insured persons and their families with effect from the 20th November, 1961. About 51 factory establishments at Jabalpur and 4,500 employees have been covered under the Scheme. Details of medical benefits provided to insured persons and their families during 1961 are given below.

Insured Persons

No. of insured persons	4,500
No. of patients treated	
(a) New	11,728
(b) Old	45,926
(c) Total	57,654
No. of certificates issued	
(a) First	3,469
(b) First and Final (combined)	665
(c) Final	[illegible]
(d) Intermediate	1,997
(e) Special Intermediate	192
No. of injury report issued	274
No. of operations performed	46
No. of injections given	16,290
No. of home visits	30
Cases referred to hospitals	
(a) Laboratory examinations	21
(b) X-Ray	31
(c) Specialist advice	595

No. of cases admitted to hospitals	56

Families of Insured Persons

No. of family units	4,500
No. of patients treated	
(a) New	11,243
(b) Old	27,625
(c) Total	38,868
No. of injections given	8,096

The Employees' Provident Fund Act and the Scheme framed thereunder is applicable generally to all those factory establishments engaged in any of the Scheduled Industries, employing 50 or more employees, having completed first three years of their set up, or employing 20 or more employees, having completed first five years of their set up. These employees "other than excluded employees employed in or in connection with the work of a factory/establishment (even employed through a contractor) who have completed one year's continuous service or 240 days of actual work in a period of 12 months or less in that factory/establishment or in any other factory/establishment under the same employer or partly in one and partly in the other, are eligible for membership of the statutory Fund." There are 14 factories/establishments in the District, which were brought under the purview of this Scheme from the year 1956 to 1960. A statement giving their names, number of workers covered under the Scheme and the dates on which the establishments were brought under the Scheme is given below.

S. No.	Name of the Industrial Establishment	No. of workers covered under the Scheme	Date of coverage
1.	Simplex Engineering and Foundry works, Jabalpur.	67	November, 1956
2.	Singhal Motilal, Jabalpur.	50	1-8-1956
3.	Jabalpur Electric Supply Co.	333	31-7-1956
4.	National India Rubber Works, Katni.	134	"
5.	Central India Electric Supply Co., Katni	157	"
6.	Olpherts Pr. Ltd., Katni.	72	"
7.	Indian Hume Pipe and Co., Jabalpur.	47	1-1-1960
8.	Shri Vijay Dal-Mills, Jabalpur.	12	31-12-1960
9.	Bombay Garage, Jabalpur.	21	"
10.	Shri Mahabir Rice and Oil-Mill, Katni.	9	"
11.	Jamuna Dal-Mills, Jabalpur.	12	"
12.	Mohanlal Mills, Jabalpur.	18	"
13.	Jabalpur General Industries, Jabalpur.	15	"
14.	Ishwar Industries, Niwar, Katni.	192	31-7-1956

CHAPTER VI

BANKING, TRADE AND COMMERCE

"Everywhere the financier is necessary and everywhere he is found", observes the Central Provinces Provincial Banking Enquiry Committee, and Jabalpur has been no exception. There is little doubt that the indigenous money-lender has been active both in the rural and the urban area since time immemorial though whatever little information regarding the system is forthcoming refers to recent times. Government, Joint Stock Banks and co-operatives have joined the ranks of financiers more recently.

An indigenous banker is identified by the acceptance of deposits or dealing in *hundies* or both being associated with money-lending. In this sense the money-lender is not an indigenous banker and yet he can be rightly described as the latter's forerunner. The landlord,[1] the substantial cultivator, the *Mahajan* or *Sahukar* and the itinerant money-lender have been the principal indigenous financiers in the rural area, the urban area being served mainly by the professional money-lenders known as *Seth* or *Mahajan*. The money-lender is found in various stages of development in the District as elsewhere. Usually he is a man of means operating on his own funds. Frequently he pursues other trades and business along with money-lending.

In the village the cultivator borrows in cash to meet his agricultural and personal needs. However, loans in kind are not uncommon. The agriculturist money-lender and the *bania* trader keep a reserve of grain which is advanced to needy cultivators and agricultural labourers. In the urban areas the *Seth* or *Mahajan* advances money to traders, craftsmen and village *Sahukar* who are compelled to supplement their resources for giving loans to the cultivators. Such *Mahajans* have been mentioned in some earlier records and reports. In a letter written in February 1828 C. Frazer refers to *Seth* Sewa Ram as "one of the most opulent *Maha*

1. As per Madhya Pradesh Abolition of Proprietary Rights Act, 1950 the malguzar, or the land-lord ceased to exist.

jans of Jubbulpore." The Central Provinces Provincial Banking Enquiry Committee Report 1930, similarly says that "Pandit Gajadhar Prasad Pateria, a very wealthy money-lender of Jubbulpore, is an example of a man who has become rich by lending money on the instalment system to small persons at 24 per cent."[1]

In the remote past these money-lenders formed a necessary part of the rural economy. The communal life of the village was stronger and the money-lenders depended for their existence and for the maintenance of their business upon the good-will of the community. Public opinion supported legitimate dealings and was strongly opposed to extortionate conduct by the money-lender. With the establishment of British rule, the Panchayat and public opinion became less compelling and the system of justice and administration introduced by the British left the uneducated and needy borrower completely at the mercy of the creditor for whom the temptation to amass ill-gotten gain proved too strong.

It is in the present century that Government realised the need for proper control of money-lending This led to several enactments, such as, the Usurious Loans Act, 1918, the Central Provinces and Berar Money-lenders Act, 1934, etc., directed towards eliminating usury and other malpractices through a system of registration and compulsory maintenance of accounts. The professional money-lenders have survived these curbs and also competition from the new credit agencies, *viz.*, Government, Commercial Banks and Co-operative Societies. Their hold on rural credit is extensive even today as revealed by the All-India Rural Credit Survey, 1951, in the adjoining District of Sagar. The number of money-lenders registered under the Money-lenders Act, in Jabalpur District is shown in the table below.

Year	Tahsil				District Total
	Jabalpur	Sehora	Murwara (Katni)	Patan	
1957-58	431	209	269	84	993
1958-59	455	220	291	108	1,074
1959-60	439	244	302	96	1,081
1960-61	407	239	299	101	1,046
1961-62	411	256	278	118	1,063
1962-63	425	267	308	120	1,120

1. The Report of the Central Provinces Provincial Banking Enquiry Committee, 1929-30, Vol. I, p 352:

The indigenous bankers accommodate small dealers and merchants. They do not finance agriculture directly, but lend to village money-lenders when their resources are strained. Now many money-lenders in the District can be called indigenous bankers. In 1929-1930 the only indigenous banker of the province, *viz.*, the firm of Bansilal Abirchand had a branch at Jabalpur which exists even today. In 1946 S. S. Dhanyakumar Dharamdas and Co., indigenous bankers transacting all types of banking business, was established at Katni. Their annual turnover of business is approximately Rs. eight crores. The rate of interest charged on secured loans varies from seven to nine per cent per annum while it is 12 per cent on unsecured loans.

GENERAL CREDIT FACILITIES AVAILABLE

The principal agencies supplying credit in the District are agriculturist money-lenders, traders, professional money-lenders, commercial banks, government and co-operative societies. The area of operation and the importance of co-operative societies have been growing and, more recently, substantial funds are being made available by government for a variety of purposes. The commercial banks are located in the towns only and have, therefore, a very limited field. Both their organisation and their method of work conspire to limit their utility. Thus, notwithstanding the development of these new agencies, the professional money-lender continues to dominate the scene.

Indebtedness

Some account of indebtedness in the rural area of the District is found in the Settlement Reports and in the Report of the Central Provinces Provincial Banking Enquiry Committee. However, little information regarding the volume and nature of urban indebtedness is forthcoming.

The average harvest in the last decade of the 19th century was poor largely on account of unfavourable climatic conditions. As a result, rents fell into arrears and frequently the *malguzar* had to borrow money to pay his revenue and his household and other expenses. Consequently the price of proprietary interests in land sank to a very low level. H. R. Crostwaite in the course of settlement operations (1907-12), found that the indebtedness of the *malguzars* of the District amounted to Rs. 41,85,671 most of which was secured by mortgage. The landlords had raised loans worth Rs. 42 lakhs on property worth Rs. 220 lakhs, showing a position

not too embarrassing. The average debt per proprietor was Rs. 505. Speaking about the condition of the tenants, Crosthwaite in his report observed: "I found that really heavy indebtedness was not the rule but the exception, that heavy debt was generally ancestral debt, that many tenants were quite free from debt, and that many more habitually borrowed at high rates of interest, simply because they lacked thrift and regarded the money-lender as an indispensible adjunct."[1]

The principal sources of credit were the landlords and the professional money-lenders. Nelson has stated[2] that the loan transactions were entered in *Khatas* (books of accounts) and they were frequently unsigned. Character and reputation were two dominant factors in the money market. Sometimes caste also played an important role, for Kurmis, well, known for their resources and business capacity were allowed favourable rates of interest. The usual rate of interest was 18 per cent in case of unsecured loans which rarely exceeded 24 per cent. In case of mortgages of proprietary rights 12 and 18 per cent were very common rates of interest though in a few rare cases even 24 per cent interest was noticed. The principal causes of debt were extravagance in ceremonial expenditure, litigation and the gradual division and sub-division of holdings to the point at which it became uneconomic.

The Central Provinces Provincial Banking Enquiry Committee which conducted a survey of the District in 1929-30 estimated that the total debt of the *malguzars* had increased by Rs. 40 lakhs, or approximately to Rs. 82,16,479 since 1912. Their total debt represented about 26 per cent of the value of their land which was a larger percentage than for most districts. Only 15 per cent of the *malguzars* of the District were free from debt. The total indebtedness of the *Malik-Makbuzas* and tenants was estimated at Rs. 1,26,24,196, representing eight times the total assessment on the land held by them and 40 per cent of the average value of the gross crop outturn in a normal year. The average debt per family was Rs. 232. The committee found only 16 per cent of the cultivators free from debt, six per cent of all cultivators being hopelessly indebted. The Committee observed that the ordinary rates of interest varied between 12 per cent and 24 per cent, the interest on secured debt approximating to 12 per cent and on unsecured to 24 per cent. Grain loans were not uncommon. Date, Vice President of the Central Bank, Jabalpur, in his written

1: Land Revenue Settlement Report of Jubbulpore District 1907-12, p. 22.
2. A. E. Nelson, Jubbulpore District Gazetteer, 1909, p. 185

statement submitted to the Committee said *Sawai* (one and a quarter) is charged for wheat and gram. *dedhi* (one and a half) for rice, and *duni* (double) for tilli and san hemp seed. The distribution of debt in the District for various purposes was as under:

	Purpose	Per cent
1.	Old debt and repayment of old debt.	22.87
2.	Marriage and other ceremonials.	11.11
3.	Maintenance expenses.	12.10
4.	Arrears of or loan for payment of land revenue.	6.60
5.	Litigation.	.11
6.	Cultivating expenses.	28.21
7.	Field embankment, land improvements and improved agricultural implements.	17.78
8.	Purchase of land and bringing new land into cultivation.	1.21

It will be seen that nearly 47 per cent of the total debt was incurred for productive purposes. It is, however, interesting to note that the Committee found that "the money-lender does not as a rule make any distinction between loans for productive or unproductive purposes in fixing the rate of interest." Of the total loans 64.8 per cent was obtained from professional money-lender, 16 per cent from landlords, 13 per cent from Government and 6.2 per cent from Co-operative Credit Banks. It is clear that the money-lender had not been dislodged from his position of pre-eminence as a financier.

No recent estimate of the volume of indebtedness in the District is available. However, the Forecast Report of 1953 says. "It is abundantly clear that not only has the number of cultivators who were forced to pay for at least a part of the accumulated and recurring debts by transferring their lands during the rather difficult period of 1930-31 to 1940-41 gone down considerably, but also the area or the rental or revenue assessment of the transferred lands was less, indicating that the debts bore a lesser percentage to the assessment of land than found by the Banking Enquiry Committee for the period prior to 1930-31..............................Even though the scope of the Relief Act, was restricted, the small fraction of the

outstanding debts under the Act, to those estimated in 1929-30 clearly indicates that the Pressure of indebtedness had considerably eased by 1941."[1]

The Reserve Bank of India undertook a survey of rural credit in Sagar district in 1951. The results of this survey can, with certain reservations, be treated as representative of the prevailing condition in the wheat zone to which Jabalpur District belongs. The survey revealed that in Sagar the average debt per cultivating family was Rs. 568. Of this 36.4 per cent was owed to Government, 1.4 per cent to co-operative and commercial banks, 6.3 per cent to relations, 2.0 per cent to agriculturist money-lenders, 53.2 per cent to professional money-lenders and 0.7 per cent to other agencies. This gives a fair idea of the hold of the professional money-lenders as late as in 1951.

Urban Indebtedness

No information on the volume of urban indebtedness is available. Some information on the State of indebtedness among industrial workers is, however, available from the Report on an enquiry into family-budgets of industrial workers in Jabalpur city. According to this report in 1943 the total amount of indebtedness of the 482 families of industrial workers comes to Rs. 27,423-5-0 or Rs. 56-14-4. per family. The amount of loan per family varied from Rs. 255 to Rs. 3951-8-0 and the rate of interest from two per cent to 300 per cent. The causes of indebtedness were sickness, marriages, unemployment, festivals, funerals and other miscellaneous causes, the sources of loans being friends, relatives, and in some cases money-lenders.

At present the rates of interest vary considerably from place to place and customer to customer in the District. Money-lenders working with slender resources are known to charge from half-anna per rupee per month, *i.e.*, 37½ per cent per annum to even 150 per cent per annum depending on the credit of the borrower and the risk involved. The Rohillas who are not as numerous to day as in the past, charge a rate as high as 300 per cent. Persons with little or no credit alone borrow from these money-lenders since they cannot borrow elsewhere. The law courts have generally adjudicated rates over 10 per cent as excessive, but the ingenuity of the money-lender generally succeesds in keeping the borrower away from the protective arm of law.

1. B. P. Upadhyaya, Forecast Report on the Resettlement of Jabalpur District 1953, p. 15.

The indebtedness of the cultivators has always received attention. As early as 1835 Major Low wished to introduce special measures for the relief of indebtedness. In the opening years of the twentieth century Sir Bampfylde Fuller introduced a scheme of debt conciliation which was only partially successful owing to the opposition made by creditors. Crosthwaite's Settlement Report (1912) gives an intersting account of voluntary debt conciliation during the course of settlement which largely through the active co-operation of the landlord money-lenders, such as, Seth Jiwandas, Rai Bahadur Bishun Datta Shukul and many others, helped to reduce the total debt of tenants from Rs. 44,86,154 to Rs. 22,55,315 In the 'thirties Debt Conciliation Boards were established with a view to helping the debtors and creditors reaching an agreement to scale down debt. The Patan-Sihora Debt Conciliation Boards worked from May 1935 to September 1937 and in 2524 cases debts amounting to Rs. 27 29 lakhs—were conciliated for Rs. 15 34 lakhs—a remission of 44 per cent. The Debt Conciliation Board in Jabalpur-Murwara similarly conciliated debts amounting to Rs. 5.16 lakhs for Rs. 2.81 lakhs—a remission of 45 per cent in 1068 cases during 1937-38. Subsequently the Government inscribed the Central Provinces and Berar Relief of Indebtedness Act, 1939 in the Statute Book. The courts were given wide and far-reaching powers to give relief to the debtors. The extent of relief given under the Act, in the District is revealed by the Table below.

Year	Cases for determination	Amount involved according to		Amount determined by Court	Percentage of coloumns (3) to (5)
		Debtor	Creditor		
1940	1,602	16,11,574	14,19,616	10,18,494	63
1941 ..	705	6,33,057	8,09,283	5,23,528	83
1942 ..	630	5,74,242	7,60,402	4,67,714	8

Role of Private Money-Lenders and Fianancers

In the foregoing sections it has been stated that the Sahukar, or *Mahajan* is even now the most important source of credit in the rural area. At any time the average cultivator in an average village may find himself unable to support himself and his family and to

carry on his agricultural operations without financial assistance, from outside. Thus he comes to a rural financier. The latter lends for every conceivable purpose and is more flexible in his dealings. There is no prolonged enquiry into the credit-worthiness of the borrower as this is usually known to the *Mahajan* or lending cultivator and the formalities are few. These money-lenders give short and intermediate loans and generally meet the cultivators' requirements through their own resources. The small cultivator depends on him for seed and other cultivation expeses, for his own resources are hardly sufficient to enable him to tide over the long period that must elapse before the harvest is ready. If the loans are seasonal they are expected to be paid back in six or eight months and the rate of interest usually is 25 per cent. For large sums and intermediate loans the rates vary according to the credit of the borrower and the security offered. The money-lender does not seriously worry about the repayment of debt and is generally more lenient as compared to the co-operatives and commercial banks. When the debt begins to accumulate he usually takes a written bond or insists on the land being mortgaged.

Sometimes it is said that the *Mahajan* is unscrupulous in his dealings with the cultivator and uses questionable means. While the existence of some unscrupulous money lenders cannot be denied, it should not be overlooked that the money-lender performs a very important function where the general saving of the masses is insignificant and alternative sources of credit are both ill-developed and inadequate. Acknowledging their services the Provincial Banking Enquiry Committee stated that, "Although it is nowadays fashionable with certain school, who consist mainly of disgruntled debtors, to abuse the village financiers as unscruplous Shylock, it is impossible to underestimate the great services which he has conferred on the agricultural community."[1]

In the urban areas the money-lender is the principal source of credit to persons who have little security to offer and also for unproductive loans. Small traders and artisans generally borrow from the professional money-lenders largely because of their relatively poor credit.

Through loans given to the traders and merchants, the money-lender helps the movement and distribution of goods. With an increase in the banking facilities available in the District and the growth of artisans' co-operatives the money-lenders's monopoly is

1. Report of the Central Provincial Banking Enquiry Committee, 1929-30, Vol. I, p. 86.

broken. It is, however, doubtful if the co-operatives and the banks with their rules and formalities will be able to dislodge the money-lender in the near future.

Joint Stock Banks

The commercial Banks (Scheduled and non-scheduled) which form the main component of modern banking structure, specialize only in certain phases of economic activity, because of their structure and methods of business. Their interest in agricultural credit lies not so much in production as in marketing. Thus the location of these banks is necessarily guided by the large concentration of sale of agricultural produce, industry and trade which are mainly the characteristics of urban centres. There were only six joint stock bank offices in the District in 1962, and all of them were branch offices of the banks, having registered offices outside the District. The names and location of their offices are given below

1. State Bank of India Ltd, Jabalpur.
2. State Bank of India Ltd., Sihora.
3. State Bank of India Ltd., Katni.
4. Central Bank of India Ltd., Jabalpur.
5. Punjab National Bank Ltd., Jabalpur.
6. Allahabad Bank Ltd, Jabalpur.

The first bank office to be opened in the District was a branch of the Bank of Bengal, established at Jabalpur in 1866[1] Later, in 1893, the Bhargava Commercial Bank was established at Jabalpur. Rao Bahadur Biharilal[2] Bhargava who was having an extensive money lending business in the District was instrumental in the establishment of this bank. The Banking Enquiry Committee observed that "Its authorised capital is Rs. 3,00,000, subscribed and paid up capital is Rs. 2,50,000. Its function is to lend money, purchase and sell hundies and promissory notes. It makes advances on the security of land and other valuable commodities. It has no branches in the province. The bank is reported to be doing very little business these days, and its resources are not sufficiently large to enable its banking operations to be important."[3] Yet another bank, known as The Islamic Bank of India[4], was started in 1928 with an authorised

1. Jubbulpore District Gazetteer, 1909, p. 138
2. *Ibid.*
3. Central Provinces Provincial Banking Enquiry Committee Report 1929-30, Vol. I, p. 94.
4. *Ibid.*

capital of Rs. 20,000, subscribed capital of Rs. 2,555 and paid-up capital of Rs. 1,635. Its declared objects were to do trading and banking business. The Laxmi Bank Ltd., also opened a branch office in Jabalpur city in 1946. However, these banks are defunct now.

Of the present banks operating in the District, the Allahabad Bank, with its branch at Jabalpur, is the oldest. The branch was established as far back as 1919. The Bank did "the usual business of commercial banking .... In the matter of advances, they discount bills, open cash credit accounts and give loans. They also do the usual agency and safe custody business, remittance on behalf of their clients, and also buy and sell shares."[1]. It does not directly finance the agriculturists The growth of the Bank cannot be traced for want of necessary data.

The next to appear in the field in 1922 was the branch office of the Imperial Bank of India, then newly formed through the amalgamation of three Presidency banks. The present State Bank of India with a branch at Jabalpur are the successors to the Imperial Bank of India. It was incorporated in India under the State Bank of India Act, 1955. Since then two more branches were opened at Katni and Sihora, in September 1924 and November 1959, respectively. The Punjab National Bank Ltd. and the Central Bank of India Ltd., appeared with a branch each at Jabalpur in 1945 and 1948 respectively. The former has the administrative control over its pay-offices at Katni, Mandla and Satna.

The Volume of Business.—Primarily the business of these banks is to attract deposits—current fixed and savings—and to finance mainly the movement of cash, food-crops, etc., from and to the exporting centres of the District having adequate transporting facilities with the important consumption centres and markets beyond the District. It is done through the short-term advances against easily realisable securities by opening cash credits and by the discounting of bill of exchange, etc.

The volume of business of these joint stock banks has shown steady increase in each successive year. The total volume of business carried on by the branches of the State Bank of India and the Punjab National Bank in the District during the year 1960, approximated Rs. 195.12 crores. The volume of business transacted by these banks in 1961 showed an increase of Rs. 99.84 crores or about 50.1

1. *Ibid* p. 93.

per cent over 1960. However, during 1961, the total volume of business of five out of six branches of different banks in the District amounted to Rs. 304.91 crores.

Data relating to advances given by these banks are not available for all the six branches of the three Banks. The combined figures of advances by the branches of the State Bank of India and the Central Bank of India from 1957 to 1961 are given below.

Year	Total advance in lakhs Rs.
1957	30.18
1958	24.21
1959	25.30
1960	21 71
1961	24.14

Notwithstanding the incompleteness of data, these figures reveal the intensity of banking activity in the District The normal rates of interest charged on different kinds of advances varied between four and nine per cent per annum in these banks.[1]

Defence Efforts.—The Joint Stock Banks of the District have played a prominent and commendable role in the collection of Defence Funds from various individuals and institutions. The total collection by different branches of the Joint Stock Banks in the District and the Post Office at Jabalpur up to 29th December 1962 was to the tune of Rs 15,56 805. And the collection from 30th December to 5th January 1963 stands to Rs 38,563 making a total collection of Rs. 15,95,367 by the 5th January 1963. There was a good response from the people in general and they donated liberally gold also towards the Defence Fund. Four branches of the Joint Stock Banks in the District collected gold weighing 7970 85 grams upto 20th December 1962 and 92 69 grams from 30th December to 5th January 1963 showing a total collection of gold of 8063 54 grams.

Small Saving Scheme.—The following small saving schemes continued their operation in the District. They are—

1. Post Office Savings Bank Account.
2. 12 Years National Plan Savings Certificates.

1. The branch of the Union Bank of India Ltd., was opened at Jabalpur Contonment on the 12th September, 1962. In city also a branch of the Bank was opened on 8th April, 1963 The Jabalpur branch of the Bank of India Ltd. was opened on 21st January 1963

3. 10 Year Treasury Savings Deposits.
4. 15 Years Annuity Certificates.
5. Cumulative Time Deposit Scheme.

The gross and net deposits in the said schemes in the District for the year 1960-61 were Rs. 1,07,04,157 and Rs. 33,35,209 respectively, while the corresponding figures for 1961-62 were Rs. 1,02,90,186 and Rs. 20,73,048.

The total sale of the Prize Bonds in the District for the years, 1960-61 and 1961-62, was Rs. 4,03,650 and Rs. 1,19,260 respectively.

Ware-Housing Corporation.—Madhya Pradesh Ware-Housing Corporation was established in Madhya Pradesh in the year 1958, under the Agricultural Produce (Development and Ware-Housing) Corporation Act, 1956. This placed an additional facility within the reach of the cultivators, apart from increasing their bargaining capacity to raise loans and advances on easy terms from the branches of State Bank or other scheduled banks on the authority of the ware-house receipt. In November 1959, a Ware-house was established at Katni and another at Sihora Road in April, 1961.

The procedure for obtaining loan is that an agriculturist who deposits his produce at the Ware-house, and pays charges, including the insurance against fire, accidents, etc., gets in return a Ware-house receipt. On the basis of the Ware-house receipt the State Bank or any Scheduled bank advances, money to the extent of 60 to 75 per cent of the total value of the goods deposited at a comparatively low rate of interest ranging from five and half to seven per cent. Of the two ware-houses established in the District at Katni and Sihora Road, the former deposited 25,650 bags weighing 64,125* maunds during the 1960-61. In the following year the number of bags deposited increased to 32,642, weighing 81,605* maunds containing cash as well as food crops. The number of Ware-house receipts issued increased from 123 in 1960-61 to 157 in 1961-62. Advances to the tune of Rs. 59,002 and Rs. 9,25,031 were given by the banks against these receipts in 1960-61 and 1961-62, respectively. Increase was recorded by depositing 17202 bags, in comparison with the bags deposited during the same period in the previous year, *i.e.*, 3317 bags. The Sihora Road ware-house, which completed its first year of life in March 1962, deposited 5312·20 maunds of goods during the period.

* Calculated at the rate of two and half maunds per bag.

Cooperative Credit Societies and Banks

The germs of co-operative credit, emerged out of the wide-spread discontent among the people, particularly among the peasantry, owing to the severe famines and other natural calamities resulted in destitution in the, 'ninteties of last century. Consequently, 'it resulted into progressive increase in indebtedness and usury was commonly rampant, observed Meclagan Committee in 1915. We witness a positive indication in the Famine Commission report of 1901, which endorsed the idea of Mutual Credit Associations for the relief of cultivators. At about the same time, on the recommendation of a committee, the Government of India passed the first Co operative Credit Societies Act in 1904, thus ushering a new era in the history of rural credit. Later, for enlarging the scope of the Act, Co-operative Credit Societies Act was passed in 1912 (Act II of 1912) by the Government of India, applicable to whole of British India, including the Central Provinces and Berar.

The co-operative credit movement in Jabalpur District owes its origin to the enthusiasm and energy of Crosthwaite,[1] Settlement Officer, Jabalpur (1906-07 to 12). He writes that in 1907 a small Central Bank with 10 members was formed at Sihora. It started with a capital of only Rs. 2,000, which was all that could be raised, and with four societies. He states that he himself organised the first society and taught other workers, how to do so.

The principles underlying the movement in Jabalpur District, summarized by Crosthwaite, were as under :

"Small area (each society is confined to a single village); the enrolment, after careful selection, of a certain number of members of known honesty and industry; the individual and collective liability of these persons for the necessary working capital; no shares, no dividend, all profits devoted (a) to the building up of a reserve fund and (b) after the provision of an ample reserve fund to works of public benefit; the gratuitous service of all officials; the discharge of all existing debts and an undertaking to borrow from the society only in future; the saving by each member of so many annas in each rupee of his rent every year.

"Loans are granted for any purpose approved of by the committee of management to the extent of the credit allowed to each member by the decision of the members in general meeting. No

1. Central Provinces Provincial Banking Enquiry Committee Report 1929-30 Vol. II, p. 622.

sureities are asked for and all loans are made 'on honour' only. A *bahi khate* and a *rokha bahi* constitute the books of account and a short set of working rules is provided."[1]

The number of primary societies in the District steadily increased from year to year. The need for a free supply of capital led to the formation of the various central agencies to finance and control the individual credit societies.

The three Central Banks, *viz.*, The Crosthwaite Co-operative Central Bank Ltd., Sihora (Registered in the year 1907); the Jabalpur Co-operative Central Bank Ltd., (registered in the year 1911), and the Forester Co-operative Central Bank Ltd., Murwara (registered in the year [illegible]), were operating in the District in the past. A provincial Co-operative Central Bank for the Central Provinces and Berar was also registered in the year 1912, with its headquarters at Jabalpur.

The Co-operative Credit movement had a steady growth in the District and was at its best in [illegible]. Unfortunately the co-operative credit movement received a great set back in the following years, largely owing to the heavy rainfall and widespread floods of the year 1926, followed by general fall in the level of prices in the 'thirties. The poor cultivators could hardly withstand the blow and the indebtedness of the cultivators increased, resulting into a sharp fall in the repaying capacity. Consequently the recoveries of the Banks were also adversely affected. Ultimately the Debt Conciliation Legislation was passed by the Government in 1937, and rehabilitation enquiry was started in the year 1940. The two Banks in the District, leaving aside the Sihora Central Bank, were brought under section 42-B and the Government had to intervene in the management of the Banks till the year 1947. It was also felt necessary by the Government to amend the Tenancy Act in the year 1942 under which the occupancy lands were made mortgageable in favour of co-operatives to enable them to recover their dues.

The Second World War which broke out in the year 1939, activised the movement and a ray of hope was again seen by the co-operators. Prices went up and the Banks were in a position to recover their dues conveniently.

1. Jubbulpore District Gazetteer, 1909, p. 187.

Due to control on foodgrain, etc., the non-credit movement, as everywhere in the province, also received an impetus and a number of Multipupose Societies, Co-operative stores and Weaver's Societies, sprang up in the District.

A five year Plan for the growth of non-credit movement was drafted in the year 1945. The Societies worked well, so long as there was control. Later they could not stand in the open market competition and ultimately a large number of them went into liquidation.

The recommendations of All-India Rural Credit Survey in the year 1951, and the Five Year Plans launched by the Government infused a new life in the co-operative movement. It is a matter of pride that the cooperatives are becoming more popular in urban areas where the independent Credit Societies are flourishing and bringing the educated people also under their fold. These are organising their own independent Credit and Housing Societies.

As regards the rural areas, large-sized societies are being organised in the District by amalgamating the small-sized credit societies with a view to making them economic units. Primary marketing societies are also being organized in villages with a view to linking credit with marketing as was recommended by the All-India Rural Credit Survey Committee.

The Reserve Bank of India Act was later on amended in the light of the recommendations of the Committee on rural credit in 1951. A separate department of Agricultural Credit was established in the Reserve Bank to finance the development of cooperatives under the Plans. Further, as suggested by the committee, increasing state participation in the finances of the Central Co-operative Banks, establishment of large-sized societies and marketing societies were resorted to. In the Plan period 26 large-sized Societies and five Marketing Societies were organised in the District on limited liability basis, and to strengthen their finances share capital contribution, staff subsidy, godown loans, etc. were made available by the Government. Apart from the above types of societies, better farming societies and service-societies were organised under the Plan schemes which are also receiving financial assistance from the Government in the shape of staff subsidy, etc. The number of various types of societies in the District during the period 1960-63 is shown in the Appendix. The District had 568 credit societies and 190 non-credit societies in 1962-63.

With a view to improving the working of societies, Government has opened Co-operative Training Institutes, one of which is located at Jabalpur. The field-staff of the Bank is imparted training in the Institute. As the old system of writing of accounts, etc., of the Primary Societies was not upto the mark, banks have now appointed supervisors for the supervision and control of these societies.

After the Reorganisation of States in 1956, the headquarters of the Apex institutions like M.P. State Co-operative Bank Ltd., M. P. State Cooperative Marketing Societies, the M. P. State Co-operative Land Mortgage Bank, the M. P. State Central Cooperative Weavers Society, the M. P. State Cooperative Printing Press and the M. P. State Cooperative Union are also located in Jabalpur.

The financial and physical achievements of various schemes implemented in the District under the Second Five Year Plan (1956-61) are detailed below.

Scheme	Actual Expenditure 1956-61	Actual Physical Achievements 1956-61		
		Unit	Targets	Actuals
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
1. Apex. M.P. State Cooperative Bank.	45,500	Bank	1	1
2. Development Cooperative Central Banks.	16,800	Banks	2	2
3. Large-Sized Societies	1,16,140	Societies godowns	26	26
		Godowns	7	7
4. Rural Godown	10,000	Rural Godowns	1	1
5. Revitalizations & Organisation of village Societies.	31,800	Societies	134	134
6. Supervision of small sized Societies by Central Bank.	24,300	(Banks) (Subsidised)	3	3
7. Appex Marketing Co-operative Society.	11,14,100	Marketing Society	1	1
		Godowns	10	6
8. Primary Marketing Societies ..	2,21,600	Primary Marketing Societies	5	5
		Godowns.	5	5
9. Development of Processing societies.	1,56,000	Processing	1	1
10. Co-operative Farming Societies ..	63,000	Coop. farming Societies.	21	21

The cooperative credit movement which had started with the establishment of Crosthwaite Cooperative Bank (1907), affiliating 11 Societies in 1908, went on increasing rapidly in the following years so much so that in 1912, the peak year during the pre-independence period, the societies affiliated to Jabalpur and Bishnu Datta[1] Co-operative Centarl Banks in the District numbered 210 and 301, respectively. Then followed a period of set-back with a sharp decline in the number of societies. This trend continued till 1937, when the Central Bank at Jabalpur and Bishnu Datta Cooperative Central Bank touched the lowest mark of 135 and 174, respectively. The number of societies affiliated to the above banks increased thereafter. The affiliation with the former increased from 135 in 1937 to 156 in 1948, 188 in 1951 and to 234 in 1956, but declined to 266 in 1961. Similarly, in regard to the latter[2], the number of societies rose from 174 in 1937 to 180 in 1947, 181 in 1952, 194 in 1956 and to 314 in 1960.

The societies were organised earlier on the individual and collective liability basis, and the principal security of a member was his honesty and character Land was not mortgaged by either society or banks. Owing to the set-backs in the late' twentiest and 'thirties of the present century there was accumulation of debt, endangering the societies' loans. The enforcing of the joint and several liability proved unpopular. The occupancy lands which were not mortgageable with the co-operative societies were made so by an Act amending the Tenancy Act in 1942.

Financing then started on the mortgages of land and on offering surities of two members of the society. After the amendment of Section 19 of the Cooperative Societies Act II of 1912, the mortgages were replaced by declarations under Section 19-A of the Act and the members are now required to give declarations under this section for obtaining loans.

At present the Primary Credit Societies affiliated to the Cenral Banks are required to execute a promissory note and an agreement for obtaining credit. They are also required to assign the declarations obtained by them from their members in favour of the Bank.

1. Crosthwaite Co-operative Bank.

2. The figure of Societies include the figures of Central Bank Katni after its amalgamation with Sihora Central Bank in 1959.

A member with an acre of land is allowed an advance varying between Rs. 40 and Rs. 50. The maximum limit up to which a member can be financed is Rs. 1500 for agricultural operations, purchase of bullocks, improvement of land, etc.

Rates of Interest.—The first cooperative Central Bank in the District which financed the Rural Credit Societies charged interest at the rate of nine per cent and the societies in turn charged their members interest at the rate of 12 per cent carrying three per cent profit to their Reserve funds. After the Independence, on the recommendations of the committee on rural credit, the Reserve Bank of India has come to the assistance of the movement and has made it possible for loans being given at lower rates of interest. The rate of interest charged by the Reserve Bank of India from Apex banks is two per cent; by Apex from Central Bank three and a quarter per cent; and by Central Bank from Societies six per cent. The Societies lend to their members at nine per cent.

Central Banks.—As mentioned earlier there were three Central Banks in the District at Jabalpur, Katni and Sihora. In 1959 the Katni Bank was amalgamated with Sihora Bank, leaving only two at present.

The Bishnu Datta Co-operative Central Bank Ltd., Sihora.—The history of the Cooperative movement in Jabalpur District begins with the organization of the Cooperative Central Bank Ltd., Sihora, through the enthusiasm and energy of Crostwaite, Settlement Officer, after whose name it was registered as 'Crosthwaite Cooperative Central Bank Ltd.,' in 1907, under the Cooperative Societies Act of 1904. Bishnu Datta Shukla was its honorary Secretary. It started its working with a modest capital of Rs. 2000 and four small-credit societies. The Bank made such rapid progress that in the year 1911-12 the working capital of the bank and the number of its affiliated societies rose to Rs. 1,61,063 and 159, respectively. The paid-up share capital of the bank in June 1960 was Rs. 4,39,807, of which Rs. 1,89,000 was the contribution of the State Government. The Reserve funds of the Bank amounted to Rs. 84,841 and other funds to Rs. 68,716. The working capital of the Bank stood at Rs. 20,27,233.

Originally the area of operation of this bank was limited to Sihora tahsil of Jabalpur District Later it was extended to Katni in 1959, after the amalgamation of Katni with the Central Cooperative Bank in that year. The present name of the Bank was adopted in the year 1954.

In 1960 there were 314 societies affiliated to this bank. The tahsilwise break-up is as under:

Type of Societies (1)	Sihora (2)	Katni (3)	Total (4)
Small-sized Primary Societies	126	83	209
Village Service Societies	62	23	85
Large-size Societies	5	8	13
Non-credit Societies	1	6	7

In 1962-63 the Central Bank granted loans as under:

(in Rs.)

Type of Societies (1)	Short term (2)	Medium term (3)
1. Small-Sized Societies	1,17,608	1,23,675
2. Service Societies	7,77,332	4,93,354
3. Non-Agricultural Societies	28,600	100
4. Marketing Societies	2,25,000	..
5. Liquidation Societies	..	74
6. Individuals	..	243
7. Large-sized Societies	1,07,71.	51,342

The Jabalpur Co-operative Central Bank Ltd., Jabalpur—The Jabalpur Cooperative Central Bank Ltd., Jabalpur was registered in the year 1911, its area of operation extending to Jabalpur and Patan tahsils of the District. The Bank started its working from September 1912 with 19 individuals and five societies and a working Capital of Rs. 4,341. The number of societies steadily increased to 211. The Bank received a set-back during the period of economice depression, with the result that, it was brought under Section 42-B of the Cooperative Societies Act and a committee of management took over the charge of the Bank on 22nd September. 1940 to save it from going into liquidation. The Government wanted to revitalize the Bank and, with this end in view, the management of the entire affairs of the Bank was entrusted to the committee. The term of this committee expired on 20th September

1947 and the management was again handed over to the shareholders of the Bank.

The paid-up share capital of the Bank on 30th June 1960, stood at Rs. 4,10,002, the Reserve Fund, Rs. 285, and other funds Rs. 78,310. The working capital of the Bank was Rs. 24,55,622 on that date. At the end of June 1963 the total working capital of the Bank was Rs. 37,95,984. From the financial year 1962-63 the Bank offered to distribute *taccavi* as per terms laid down by the Government departments. The Bank opened four branches in Jabalpur and Patan tahsils at Shahpura (January 1956), Patan (May 1960), Panagar (April 1962) and Kundam (February 1963). Of these the two branches at Shahpura and Patan are viable units. Loans advanced by the Bank during the period 1961-63 were:

(Rs. in lakhs)

Year	Loan Advanced		
	S.T.	M.T.	Total
1960-61	12.71	3.52	16.23
1961-62	12.31	2.59	14.90
1962-63	19.37	7.69	27.06

Jabalpur District Cooperative Land Mortgage Bank Ltd.- To meet the long term financial requirements of agriculturists, the Cooperative Land Mortgage Bank was founded in 1935 at Sihora under the leadership of Kashi Prasad Pande. The Bank gives loans for redemption of mortgages on land, liquidation of old debt, land improvement, etc., at rates varying from six and a quarter per cent to eight per cent. The loans are repayable in 10 annual instalments. In view of its expanding role in the District the headquarters of the Bank was shifted to Jabalpur in 1943 where it is located even now. Its membership during 1962-63 was 2090, Its working capital during 1962-63 was Rs. 4,52,266. The Bank borrows from the M. P. State Cooperative Land Mortgage Bank, Jabalpur.

The M. P. State Cooperative Bank Ltd., Jabalpur.—The Madhya Pradesh State Cooperative Bank emerged out of the amalgamation of two apex institutions of erstwhile Mahakoshal

and Madhya Bharat regions under Madhya Pradesh Co-operative Societies Amalgamation Ordinance IX of 1957. It was registered in January 1958 and commenced business in March that year. It functions as an apex institution for the State of Madhya Pradesh with 46 central cooperative banks affiliated to it. Out of 43 revenue districts, four revenue districts of Bundelkhand are at present served by the Apex Coopratíve Bank, where the Bank functions as a Central Cooperative Bank. This Bank also meets the demands of its constituents out of its loanable funds as well as those obtained by it from the Reserve Bank of India and from debentures. The total loan obtained from the Reserve Bank of India during 1958-59 amounted to Rs. 5.37 crores—Rs. 4.76 crores short term loans and Rs. 6 crores medium term loans—whereas it advanced loans to the co-operatives to the extent of Rs. 9.30 crores—Rs. 8.46 crores short term and Rs. 0.84 crore medium term loans during the year. The Bank also advanced loans amounting to Rs. 2.44 lakhs during the year to individuals for commercial business and agricultural operations.

The Central Cooperative Banks and other societies hold shares in the capital of the Bank to the tune of Rs. 53.35 lakhs while the State Government has contributed Rs. 64.60 lakhs to its share capital. The total paid-up share capital of the bank on 30th June 1961 was Rs 119.00 lakhs, including a few shares held by individual share-holders.

In addition, the Bank was discharging the functions of the Apex Land Mortgage Banking for Madhya Pradesh till recently. The new Apex Land Mortgage Bank for Madhya Pradesh was formed on 1st August 1961 and the land Mortgage business of the bank was transferred to this new bank from that date.

The volume of business and average figures of advances of the bank for the period 1957-58 to 1960-61 are as under:

(Rs. in thousands)

Year	Volume of Business	Average figures of advance
1957-58	1,58,214	68,502
1958-59	2,08,878	93,046
1959-60	3,0 ,315	1,43,83
1960-61	3,61,886	1,51,276

The rates of interest charged by the bank on different kinds of advances vary from three and a quarter per cent to four per cent, on short term, three and a half per cent to six per cent on medium term, and six and a half per cent to seven per cent on advances to individual members for short term.

During the year 1961-62 the M.P. State Co-operative Mortgage Bank Ltd., received the managerial subsidy of Rs. 25,000, which was fully utilized. During the same period *i.e.*, 1961-62, the Primary Land Mortgage Banks, therefore, could advance a sum of Rs. 12.53 lakhs.

The Madhya Pradesh Handloom Weavers, Central Co-operative Society Ltd; was registered as a result of the amalgamation of four central weavers societies working in four regions of the State. It had 162 Primary Weavers' Co-operative Societies as its members and its paid-up capital during 1958-59 was Rs. 111, 059. For marketing the finalized products, it maintained 30 depots. Besides, it ran three production centres, three dye-houses and one pattern making factory.

GENERAL AND LIFE INSURANCE

Consequent upon the nationalization of life assurance business on 1st September 1956 all Indian or foreign insurers and provident societies ceased to carry on life assurance business in India. All such business was entrusted to the Life Insurance Corporation of India with divisional branches at various places. Jabalpur is one of the Divisional headquarters of the Corporation, with a sub-office at Katni. Life Insurance business is carried on by a number of field officers and agents in the District. The collection of premia, giving loans to the policy holders, investing funds in government Securities, treasury bills, share and debentures of joint stock companies, etc., are the main functions of the Corporation.

The figures in connection with the amount of business and number of policies for the years 1959 and 1960 are as follows:—

Year	Amount of Business	No. of Policies
1959	16,721,250	4,654
1960	18,579,800	5,279

The Life Insurance Corporation of India has now undertaken fire, marine, and other general insurance business with effect from 1st April 1964. However, the following general insurance companies, having branch offices here continue to transact business in the District:—

1. Oriental Fire and General Insurance Co. Ltd; Jabalpur
2. New India Assurance Co., Ltd., Jabalpur.

3. Sterling General Insurance Co. Ltd., Jabalpur.
4. Skandia Insurance Co. Ltd., Jabalpur.
5. Vulcan Insurance Co. Ltd., Jabalpur.
6. Union Cooperative Insurance Co. Ltd., Jabalpur.
7. Marine and General Insurance Co. Ltd., Jabalpur.

Oriental Fire and General Insurance Company Ltd., Jabalpur.—The Divisional Office at Jabalpur which was established in September 1959 is controlled from the registered office of the company at Bombay, subsidiary to Life Insurance Corporation of India. The total business underwritten by the Jabalpur branch of the company showed a steady increase from Rs. 60.3 thousand in 1959 to Rs. 67.7 thousand in 1960 and to Rs. 1.27 lakhs in 1961.

New India Assurance Co. Ltd., Jabalpur.—The registered office of this company is at Bombay. The branch at Jabalpur was established in 1957. Since then it has recorded a steady increase in the volume of business transacted. The premium collected increased from Rs. 1.14 lakhs in 1957 to Rs. 2.64 lakhs in 1959 and to Rs. 3.56 lakhs in 1961.

Sterling General Insurance Co. Ltd., Jabalpur.—The Company has its registered office at New Delhi. The branch at Jabalpur was established in January 1952. The Jabalpur branch has progressed well and carried on extensive business. The volume of business increased from Rs. 1.50 lakhs in 1957 to Rs. 2.10 lakhs in 1959. Thereafter it showed a downward trend and recorded a business of Rs. 1.65 lakhs and Rs. 89 thousand in 1960 and 1961, respectively.

The Vulcan Insurance Co. Ltd., Jabalpur.—The company has its registered office at Bombay. The Jabalpur branch was opened in 1959 and since then it has progressed immensely. It accepts fire and motor insurance, riot strikes, damage, burglary, and house-breaking risks. Its premium collection increased from Rs. 5,000 in 1959 to Rs. 50,000 in 1960 and to Rs. 80,000 in 1961.

The Union Co-operative Insurance Co. Ltd., Jabalpur.—It has its registered office at Bombay. The Jabalpur branch was established in November 1960. The company is unique in India, providing for the sharing of profits with policy holders. It covers risk against standing-crops and also cattle of cooperative as well as private dairies. During the year 1961 it completed business amounting to nearly one lakh rupees.

Marine and General Insurance Co. Ltd., Jabalpur.—A branch of this company was established in the District on 15th October 1960, its registered office being located at Calcutta. At present this branch transacts fire and motor insurance business.

STATE ASSISTANCE TO INDUSTRIAL DEVELOPMENT

The Madhya Bharat Financial Corporation was estabilished under the State Financial Corporation Act, 1951[1] to grant long and medium term credit with a view to promoting the industrialization of the State. After the formation of the new State of Madhya Pradesh on 1st November 1956, it is known as the Madhya Pradesh Financial Corporation with headquarters at Indore. The main purpose of the corporation is to supplement the activities of the Industrial Finance Corporation of India by aiding private enterprise through long and medium term credit to qualified small-scale industrial establishments. Since its inception the corporation received six applications from the following industries amounting to about Rs. 11.91 lakhs, of which three applications, involving an amount of Rs. 8.66 lakhs, were sanctioned for Jabalpur District.

S. No.	Type of Industry	Amount applied for	Amount sanctioned
1	Iron Foundry	3,36,000	36,000
2	Cold-storage and manufacture of *Besan* and flour. ..	5,30,000	5,30,000
3	Fire-clay bricks and High Alumina Bricks ..	3,00,000	3,00,000
4	Manufacture of Bolts & Nuts	25,000	..

The loans are granted against adequate security, such as, first legal mortgage of land, industrial plant, etc., and advanced in suitable instalments. The loan is repayable in specified number of instalments, not exceeding 20, and interest at present is charged at six per cent per annum.

A progressive step in the direction was taken in 1962 by amending the State Financial Corporation Act 1951 to widen the scope of industrial concerns, for grant of loans to hotel and transport industry, and for the development of any contiguous area of land as an industrial estate. The loan-limit was also raised to Rs. 20 lakhs from Rs. 10 lakhs in case of public limited companies and cooperatives.

1. The erstwhile Government of Madhya Bharat Notification No. 3728-XIII-I, dated 30th June, 1955.

The Industries department of the State also extends financial assistance to small-scale and cottage industries under State Aid to Industries Act 1958. The details regarding the same are given below.

(In Rs.)

Year	Amount of Loan
1956-57	20,000
1957-58	92,200
1958-59	1,62,650
1959-60	70,150
1960-61	52,643
1961-62	1,35,320

Industries also take advantage of the hire-purchase system. One application for machinery on hire-purchase basis amounting to Rs. 81,000 was recommended to the National Small Industries Corporation, New Delhi during 1960-61. Similarly two cases for a sum of Rs. 40,000 were recommended during the year 1961-62.

CURRENCY AND COINAGE

The system of Currency and Coinage in this region appear to be as old as the history of this region. The oldest coins to be found in the District appear to be those found at Tewar on which 'Tripuri', its old name, is inscribed in Brahmi characters of probably the 3rd century B.C.[1] They are struck only on one side and by a method peculiarly Indian, according to which the metal was stamped while in a semi-molten state, with the result that the impress of the die was left enclosed in a deep incuse square.

The other coins found in the District were those of the Kalachuri King, Gangeyadeva, belonging to the 11th Century. The style of the coinage introduced by him was novel and very simple. The obverse is wholly occupied with the Raja's name and the reverse a rudely executed figure of a four armed goddess. The coins of Gangeyadeva are most commonly met with in gold. The largest coins are Attic drachmae in weight known as *dramma* in Sanskrit.[2]

1. M. G. Dikshit, Tripuri, 1952, p. 125.

2. Jubbulpore District Gazetteer, 1909, p. 73.

Yet another indication towards the gold currency prevalent in the area can be had from the gold coins found in the District, belonging to the Gond King, Sangram Shah, Samvat 1570, the equivalent of 1513 A. D. Rai Bahadur Hiralal's[1] reading about the lenged on the gold coins is given below.

"*Obverse*: crested lion in small square inside double square Nagari legen along the margin: *Putari Svasti Shri Sangrama Sahi Samvat* 1570 .... Weight 166.5 grains. Size approximately square. 7". The term *putari* is still used by the people of Garha Mandla to denote a coin which does not reach the weight of a *Muhar*."

When the Saugor Nerbudda Territories were ceded to the British in 1818, it seems that the coins prevalent in the British India were extended to this region and no separate currency for the area was in circulation. Recently the decimal currency was adopted in 1957. The reform has well been received in the District, especially in the urban areas. In the beginning the conversion of old into new coins created confusion, but now, gradually, the transactions are being increasingly made in the new currency which has started showing its advantage over the old currency in day-to-day transactions. Trading community was, however, quick to follow it compared to the agricultural community. The gradual demonetization of old currency during the transition period shall put an end to whatever trouble the simultaneous working of the two systems presented.

TRADE AND COMMERCE

Of the various occupations providing a means of livelihood in Jabalpur District, commerce accounts for about 806881 persons or 7.8 per cent of the District population. Of these 22160 were self-supporting, 4970 earning dependents and the remaining 53551 were non-earning dependents, according to 1951 Census. Majority of the self-supporting persons, engaged in Commerce, were found in urban areas. This brings home the fact that trade and Commerce are mainly localised in the urban areas of the District.

Prior to the construction of East Indian Railway line, connecting important centres in the area, and during the time of 30 years' settlement completed in 1867, most of the trade in the District was carried on by *Banjaras* on the pack-bullocks or country carts engaged to carry the produce of the District to Mirzapur. The

1. C. U. Wills, The Raj Gond Maharajas of Satpura Hills, 1923, pp. 41-42.

other roads in the District were impassable for carts. The Chief articles of exports were local grains, gun, hemp and cotton which had a reputation in Mirzapur market, as the "Bhourgarh Cotton". *Ghee* and hides were also exported towards north. The articles of import consisted principally of salt from the west, sugar, spices, brass and copper utensils and English Cotton and woollen manufactures from the north, some rice from the south and jungle produce from the east beyond the border.

The period to follow witnessed the epoch-macking event of the construction of railways from the two directions of Allahabad and Bombay, which led to a vital change in the pattern and volume of trade in the District. The same has been discussed in the Settlement Report of 1895. The principal export consisted of wheat, linseed, lac and *harra* (myrobolams). Khan Bahadur Aulad Hussain, Settlement Officer wrote: "Lac was also exported at time of last settlement, but at that time there was no trade in 'hurra' which has since become an important article of commerce. It is chiefly exported to Bombay, and thence to Europe for use in dye-making...A new article of commerce which has come to notice since last Settlement, is the limestone of Murwara, which is very highly valued and is exported to Calcutta and to towns in the North Western Provinces.......Another commodity of some importance is the paint prepared by Mr. Olpherts from iron-ore at Jaoli, which he hold on lease from Government. This paint is exported in large quantities and is used for painting ships and railway waggons."[1] During the three years' period ending 1895, limestone weighing 12.04 lakh maunds valued at about Rs. 2.93 lakhs and Olpherts' paint weighing 5115 maunds valued at Rs. 20 thousand were exported from Murwara.

The statistics of principal rail-borne exports and imports of the District for the three years ending 1893, recorded in the Settlement Report[2] (1896), bring home fact that wheat formed the principal export as well as import commodity. The export averaged 9.41 lakh maunds and imports 57 thousand maunds during the period. The other items of export were gram, averaging 1.90, linseed 1.56, *harra* 1.45, and lac 0.59 lakh maunds, while the imports of gram averaged 18, linseed five, *harra* 26, and lac eight thousand maunds during the period. The trade of the District in the following decade increased considerably due to various factors including the construction of Satpura Light railway to Seoni and Mandla. The

1. Land Revenue Settlement Report of Jubbu pore District, 1896, para 24.
2 *Ibid.*

average figures of rail-borne export for the period 1904 to 1907[1] was, of Rs. 1.36 crores, representing Rs. 20 per head of population. The imports in the District exceeded the exports and was of the average value of 1.75 crores, representing Rs. 28 per head of population. The excess in the value of imports over that of exports advanced from Rs. 19.87 lakhs in 1904 to Rs. 39.41 lakhs in 1906 and to Rs. 50.22 lakhs in 1907. On the basis of his own estimates. obtained by an examination of statistics of rail borne traffic and tested carefully, H. R. Croswaite in the Settlement Report (1906-07 to 1912) put the average value of field-produce exported from Jabalpur District at Rs. 44¾ lakhs,[2] while Khan Bahadur Aulad Hussein's estimate of the average annual value of the exports of field-produce, at the time he wrote his report (1895), was Rs. 31½ lakhs. Thus a large increase in the value of the exports of field-produce was recorded during the period, since the Settlement of 1895, and the value of agricultural exports was placed at Rs. 55-60[3] lakhs. The principal articles of export during the above period were wheat, gram and pulses, til-seed, lin-seed, hemp, myrobolams, lac, etc. The imports in the District were chiefly coal and coke, raw cotton and cotton-manufactures, rice, salt, sugar, timber, etc. The hemp export was largely to Bombay and Calcutta, for despatch to England, Germany and Italy in large quantity. The hides of cattle used to be sent to Calcutta, goat and sheep skins to Madras, Kanpur, Calcutta and Bombay, and dried meat to Burma. The mill cloth was exported chiefly to Narsimhapur, Sagar and Damoh. Roofing and flooring tiles, bricks and stone-ware pipes, made at the pottery works in Jabalpur were largely exported.[4]

Of the chief imports stated above, rice came from Chattisgarh, salt from Sambhar lake, Bombay and Gujarat, *gur* or unrefined sugar from Patna, Meerut, and Arrah, while refined quality of sugar came mainly from Mauritius. Much of the iron imports in the District were from Belgium. European cotton piece-goods were imported in the District in large quantity, principally from Bombay and Calcutta. The Indian Cotton-goods, however, were imported from Ahmedabad, Berar and Nagpur Mills. A considerable quantity of Burma Kerosene also came to the District.[5].

Since railways form the main channels of transport of exportable surplus, the figures of rail-borne traffic could sufficiently indicate the trend of trade. B. P. Upadhyaya in his Forecast Report on

1. Jubbulpore District Gazetteer, 1909, p. 234-36
2. Land Revenue Settlement Report of Jubbulpore District 1907-1912, para. 26.
3. *Ibid,*
4. Jubbulpore District Gazetteer, 1909, pp. 237-239.
5. *Ibid,* pp. 239-242.

the Resettlement of Jabalpur District stated that, "the forecast of 1927 shows that the District has a more favourable balance of trade than at settlement as disclosed by the rail-borne traffic figures." Owing to the absence of relevant material in the 'Accounts Relating to the Inland (Rail and River borne) Trade in India,' no idea can be formed about the value and pattern of trade in the intervening decades till 1950.

The volume of goods traffic handled by the 11 stations of Central Railways in the District through goods as well as coaching services is given below. These figures cannot show the volume of inward or outward trade of the District, yet they indicate the broad trend of the extent of movement of goods in the District through Central Railways.

(In million quintals)

Year		Goods	Coachings
1950	..	15.4	0.006
1951	..	19.9	0.87
1952	..	18.8	0.91
1953	..	15.4	1.95
1954	..	17.7	1.66
1955	..	17.1	1.96
1956	..	18.5	1.94
1957	..	19.2	1.66
1958	..	19.5	14.26
1959	..	20.6	1.56
1960	..	21.4	16.78
1961	..	22.7	18.25

Considerable trading activities stemming from the various factors, *viz.*, increased production of foodgrain, increased industrial activities and better facilities for transport, etc., were reflected in the steady growth of volume of rail-borne goods traffic in the District during 12 years till 1961. The goods services of Central Railways in the District handled 15.4 million quintals in 1960, 18.5 in 1956, and 22.7 million quintals in 1961. Similarly, the passenger goods traffic increased from 0.006 to 18.25 million quintals in 1961.

The inward and outward goods traffic during 1961-62 from the five stations on South Eastern Railways, *viz.*, Katangi, Rupaund, Gowrighat, Bargi and Sukree, amounted to 0.038 million quintals and 0.30 million quintals, respectively, showing a favourable balance for these stations. The principal articles of export trade were manganese-ore, bamboo-cuts, rice, soap-stone powder, timber, etc., while those of imports were ammonium sulphate, salt, etc.

In addition to large quantities of grain, principally wheat, gram and linseed, the District exports a variety of maufactured and semi-manufactured goods. Among these cement pottery, bricks and tiles, and bidi are the most important. More recently the District has been exporting considerable quantity of a large variety of manufactures, such as, iron and steel goods, cloth, sugar, machines and machineparts, medicines, drugs and a wide range of consumers' goods.

TRADE CENTRES

Jabalpur being predominantly an agricultural District, the pattern of trade is largely characterized by transactions in food and non-food crops, though the gradual growth of industrial activities has appreciably affected the pattern in recent years.

The old gazetteer mentions[1] that the most important markets in the Ditsrict were those of Panagar, Silondi, Majholi and Umaria (of Sihora tahsil). Other centres of minor importance were Baghraji, Barela, Bargi, Patan and Katangi (Jabalpur tahsil), Majhagowan and Sleemanabad (Sihora tahsil), and Bijaraghogarh and Barhi (Murwara tahsil). Panagar and Majholi trade centres were more associated with trade in cattle and grains, Silondi with *harra* and lac, timber, hemp and grain, Baghraji market with iron utensils and agricultural implements.

Presently, there are six important wholsale trade centres in the District, viz., Jabalpur, Katni, Patan, Sihora, Barela and Shahpura Bhitoni, where wholsale transaction in wheat, rice (Paddy), jowar, maize, other food garins, oilseeds, etc., are made.

Besides, the manufactured and semi-manufactured goods also form an important part of the District trade, which are mostly exported from the District. The important industrial goods transacted in the important trade centres are bidi manufactures,

1. Jubbulpore District Gazetteer, 1909, pp. 231-232.

products of pottery and refractory works, cement, limestone, tiles and bricks, timber, charcoal, handloom and power-loom products, etc. The important trade centres connected with the above commodities are Jabalpur, Katni, Sihora, Kymore, etc.

The importance of Jabalpur city as a trade centre outweighs all others in the District. A glimpse of the same may be found in the records of the Jabalpur Corporation. The net imports of grains into the municipal limits in 1937-38 amounted to about 9.18 lakh maunds, refined sugar 87 thousand maunds, ghee 13 thousand maunds, oil six thousand maunds (Rs. 1.67 lakhs), oilseeds and articles used for fuel, lighting, and washing 14.51 lakh maunds (Rs. 4.01 lakhs), articles used in construction of buildings 8.73 lakh maunds (Rs. 1.33 lakhs), drugs, gums, spices and perfumes 11 thousand maunds (Rs. 5.06 lakhs), tobacco worth Rs. 4.70 lakhs, cloth, piece-goods and articles of clothing Rs. 21.48 lakhs and metals and articles of metals Rs. 11.65 lakhs.

The five years' annual average net imports from 1952-53 to 1956-57 in Jabalpur city, in respect of foodgrains, were 23.75 lakh maunds, which further increased in the period 1957-58 to 1961-62 to 31.22 lakh maunds. Similarly, the five years' average of the value of imports of refined sugar rose from Rs. 42.73 lakhs in the first period to Rs. 67.19 lakhs in the second; in respect of ghee it remained more or less static at 13 thousand maunds; oil moved from 20 thousand maunds to 54 thousand maunds; articles including oilseeds and articles used for fuel, lighting and washing, from 12.07 lakh maunds to 32.00 lakh maunds; articles used in the construction of buildings from 1.73 lakh maunds to 36.00 lakh maunds; drugs, gums, spices and perfumes, however, remained static at 17 thousand maunds; tobacco moved from Rs. 23.02 to Rs. 24.04 lakhs; and articles including cloth piece-goods and articles of clothing and manufactured articles of dress increased from Rs. 176.7 lakhs to Rs. 271.54 lakhs.

These figures indicate that except for the import of ghee and drugs, gums, spices and perfumes, which remained static, large increase in import trade of Jabalpur city has been recorded, establishing its importance as a trade centre.

Regulated Markets and Mandis.—

There are no regulated markets in the District. However, there are 20 food-grain *mandis* of which five are in Jabalpur, eight

in Sihora, four in Murwara and three in Patan tahsils of the District. The places of their location are listed below.

Tahsil	Places
Jabalpur ..	.. Jabalpur, Miloniganj, Niwarganj, Barela and Bargi.
Sihora ..	.. Sihora, Khitola, Majholi, Majghgaon, Sleemanabad, Bahaori band, Bakal, Umaria (Pan).
Katni Murwara ..	Katni, Bijairaghogarh, Barhi, Salaiya.
Patan ..	.. Patan, Shahpura, and Katangi.

Retail Marketing Centres

Retail marketing centres have an important place in modern living, as they build-up a link between the consumers and the whole-sale dealers. A net-work of retail marketing centres is spread all over the District ensuring easy movement of goods even to places situated in the interior. Mostly, these transact business on cash basis. The important among them are at Katni town, Jukehi, Niwar, Panagar, Sihora, Majholi, Shahpura, Sahajpur, Katangi, Bhitoni, Patan, Dundi, Rithi, Salaiya, Budhagar, Gosalpur, Bheraghat, Gwarighat, Bargi and Sleemanabad, apart from Jabalpur city.

Fairs, Melas and Other Rural Marketing Centres

The fairs and *melas* constitute a necessary part of the Indian social life. In Jabalpur District also a number of such fairs, associated with important deities or religious festivals, are held anually where considerable trade in consumer-goods, eatables, and manufactured goods takes place. Presently 17 important annual fairs are held in the District as under:

Tahsil	No. of fairs	Places
Jabalpur .. —	3	Bheraghat, Tilwaraghat and Gwarighat.
Katni Murwara ..	8	Katayaghat, Kalehra, Bilheri, Barhi, Muhas, Kanhwara, Kymore. and Niwar.
Patan .. —	3	Bhowara, Chhipaghat and Bhikampur.
Sihora	3	Baikal, Koombi and Majholi.

Of the 17 fairs reported from the District, three each are held in Jabalpur, Patan and Sihora tahsils and eight in Katni Murwara tahsil. The largest among them are the Tilwaraghat and Bheraghat fairs, attended by about 25,000 and 20,000 persons, respectively.

These fairs are generally attended by the itinerant merchants, villagers from the adjoining areas, and petty shopkeepers. Wholesale traders do not participate usually, and therefore the turnover at most of these is small. Temporary shops are erected by the traders which generally include those of sweet-meat vendors, gardeners, grocers, grain-dealers, weavers, tailors, oilmen, etc. The buyers are usually the local inhabitants of the village and its neighbourhood and pilgrims from distant places. The transactions are always on cash basis in these fairs.

COOPERATIVE MARKETING

Following the recommendations of the Rural Credit Survey Committee for linking the cooperative credit with cooperative marketing, the State Government sanctioned a scheme for the development of cooperative marketing during the Second Plan period. The State Plan included for Jabalpur, a provision of Rs. 11,14,100 for an Apex Marketing Cooperative Society and Rs. 2,21,600 for five Primary Marketing Societies. The Apex Marketing Co-operative Society is already doing the business of selling chemical fertilizers, oil engines, procurement and distribution of foodgrains, sugar and export of oil-seeds and pulses for foreign countries. The undermentioned societies were organised during the Plan period either by conversion of existing Tahsil Cooperative Agricultural Associations or through the establishment of new societies.

S. No.	Name of the Society	Date of Registration	Mode of Organisation
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)
1	Patan Cooperative Marketing Society Ltd., Patan.	12-2-1958	By conversion.
2	Shahapura Cooperative Marketing Society Ltd. Shahpur-Patan.	26-2-1957	Fresh Organisation.
3	Katni Cooperative Marketing Society Ltd., Katni.	26-2-1957	Do.
4	Sihora Cooperative Marketing Society Ltd., Sihora.	13-12-1958	By conversion
5	Majholi Cooperative Marketing Society Ltd., Majholi Sihora.	30-7-1957	Do.

These societies enjoy all concessions and facilities provided under the Cooperative Societies Act II of 1912. Government has also provided financial assistance to these societies in the form of share capital contribution, loans for godowns, grants-in-aid, etc., with a view to enabling them to carry out the integrated scheme of the linking of credit with the marketing of members' produce,

Out of the financial assistance to the tune of Rs. 45,000 given by the Government, Rs. 20,000 was in the shape of share-capital contribution, returnable in 10 equal annual instalments, commencing from the fourth year; Rs. 15,000 as Godown loans, repayable in 10 annual instalments at the rate of four and a half per cent of interest; Rs. 5,000 as Godown subsidy; and Rs. 5,000 as Management subsidy.

STATE TRADING

Fair price shops are generally opened by the Government at the time of scarcity of food-grains and other commodities to arrest the rise in the prices and to secure a fair distribution of scarce goods. Government had opened fair price shops in the past in different towns and localities in the District to supply wheat, kerosene and sugar at controlled rates to the consumers. The number of fair price shops functioning in the District as on 31st March, 1962 was 23. Now the functions of the fair price shops are being gradually transferred to consumers' cooperatives.

In 1959, the M. P. State Cooperative Marketing Society had opened fair price shops in Jabalpur City to sell sugar at controlled rates to the local consumers. The society also deals in pulses, oilseeds and petroleum products.

MERCHANT AND CONSUMERS ASSOCIATIONS'

Commerce being one of the major economic activities of our times the mercantile associations and organisations naturally play an important part in the District economy. There are 14 merchants' associations and two consumers' associations functioning in the District. These are:

A. Merchants' Association :—

1. Mahakoshal Chamber of Commerce and Industry.
2. Grain and seed Merchants' Association.
3. Kirana Merchants' Association.
4. Shakkar Vyapari-Sangha.

5. Hotel Keepers' Association.
6. Cycle-dealers' Association.
7. Mishthan Vikreta Sangha.
8. Petrol-dealers' Association.
9. Timber Merchants' Association.
10. Jabalpur Automobile dealers' Association.
11. Katni Lime dealers' Association.
12. Katni Kirana dealers' Association.
13. Katni Grain dealers' Association.
14. Jabalpur Bullion dealers' Association.

B. Consumers' Association.

1. Bijli Upbhogta Sangha.
2. Rail-Yatri Sangha.

No trade journal or commercial newspapers are published in the District. The daily newspapers, however, publish separate columns displaying local market rates for various commodities. The radio is, at present, an important link between traders in the towns of the District and other commercial centres of the State and the country.

WEIGHTS AND MEASURES

Writing about weights and measures in the District Nelson observed that, "In the District and tahsil headquarters the table of ordinary weights in use is:

1 *Chittack*	= 5 tolas
1 *pao*	= 4 *chittacks*
1 seer	= 16 *chittacks* or 80 tolas
1 *paseri*	= 5 seers
One maund	= 40 seers.

"The ordinary grain measures in the interior of the tahsils are as below:

1 *kuro*	= 5 seers
1 *barahiya*	= 1¼ seers
1 *adheli*	= 10 *chittacks*
1 *chahuti*	= 5 *chittacks*

"But in the Bijeraghogarh pargana of the Murwara tahsil there are local measures as given below.[1]

1 *kuro*	= 4 seers
1 *kurai*	= 3½ seers or 4 *pailas*
1 *paila*	= 4 *doms* or 14 *chittacks*
1 *dom*	= 3½ *chittacks*

1. *Ibid,* pp. 230-231.

"In a few places, a *kuro* is equivalent to 5 seers and 1 chittack. Grain at towns on the railway line is ordinarily weighed and not measured. The maund for *kirana* is equivalent to 50 seers in Murwara *Ghi*, sugar, salt and metals are always sold by weight There are two kinds of seers, *viz.*, the *pakka* and the *kachcha*. A *pakka* seer is equivalent to 100 tolas and a *kachcha* to 80 tolas. The *pakka* seer is used for weighing tobacco, gur, lac and *harra* and also very rarely for weighing sugar. Precious metals are sold by the tola which is equivalent to the Kings' rupee.

"The area of land is still calculated by the people in terms of seed sown. Few understand the *bigha* or acre. The standard for estimating the area of land is the amount of wheat and gram which would be sown in it. 13 *kuros* of wheat and gram usually represent the capacity of one acre.

"Measures of length are: 3 *anguls* equal one *girah*; 10 *girahs* make a *gaz* or yard; two *haths* normally make a *gaz*, but they really somewhat exceed it. For distances, two measures are used, one is the ordinary English mile, two of which make a *kos*, while the *kisani* or as it is locally called the Gondi *kos*, is equivalent to 3 miles."

Prior to the introduction of Metric Weights and Measures in 1958, the C. P. and Berar Weights and Measures of Capacity Act No. II of 1928 was in force in Jabalpur District. Accordingly, the Standard of weight was 'seer', a weight of metal, when weighed in a vaccum, to be 14,400 grains as determined under section 14 of Weights and Measures Act, 1878. Similarly, the primary standard of measures of capacity was *Paili*, which was a measure contained 5/16th part of a gallon of water as determined under section 15 of the Weights and Measures Act, 1878. The multiples and the sub-multiples of the primary standard of weights were respectively 'Maund' which was equal to 40 'seers' and 'tola' which was equal to one eightieth of a 'seer'. The multiples of the measures of capacity were *Katha* consisting of four *Pailis* and *Kuroh* consisting of eight *Pailis*.

The metric weights were introduced in Jabalpur District from 1st October 1958, with two years' transitional period. The use of metric weights was made compulsory in this District from 1st October 1960.

The metric capacity measures were introduced in the notified areas of the State *i.e.*, in four districts of the State, namely, Indore Jabalpur, Gwalior and Sehore (Bhopal) and 87 regulated

market areas from 1st May, 1961 with a transitional period of one year. Accordingly, the use of metric capacity measures has been made compulsory in Jabalpur District from 1st May, 1962.

Since the metric length-measures have been introduced throughout the State of Madhya Pradesh from 1st October 1961, with a transitional period of one year, the use of metric length-measures became compulsory in this District along with the rest of the areas of the State from 1st October, 1962. Similarly, the primary units of area and volume *i.e.*, sq., metre and cubic metre have also been introduced in the District, with the rest of the areas of the State, from 1st October 1962 with a transitional period of six months.

As the system in its present form has been introduced in our country for the first time, it is natural that the people might still have some sort of attachment for the old weights and measures. However, efforts are being made by means of extensive propaganda and frequent contact with the traders and the public in general by the officials of "Weights & Measures Department" as well as the State Information and Publicity Department, acquainting the people with the advantages of this system and making them familiar with its use. The response received from the public, both in the rural and urban areas, is most encouraging. It is really gratifying that the change-over to metric system could be effected without launching a single prosecution so far, which makes it evident that this social reform of great significance is being carried out successfully on account of the persuasive method adopted by the Weights and Measures Department and the cooperation which they are receiving from the public.

CHAPTER VII

COMMUNICATIONS

Generally speaking, the facilities for communications in the Jabalpur District can be said to be more developed than in several other districts of Madhya Pradesh. The railways, running through the District along its length have helped the movement of men and goods. Its road system comprising the national highways, district and other roads have made communications easier. The automobile penetrating areas in the interior has brought them closer to the towns and centres of trade. However, even today hundreds of villages are not served by any road except pathways and cart-tracks which are open only during the dry season.

Old Time Trade Routes And Highways

Little information regarding old-time trade routes and highways in Jabalpur District is forthcoming. The existence of a *linga* and an Asokan inscription at Rupnath indicate the possibility of the place being a centre of pilgrimage, and its situation along an important route. The route from Allahabad to Broach might have passed through Rupnath[1]. It would also not be unreasonable to suppose that Tripuri the capital of the Kalchuris, and Garha the capital of the Gonds, both situated in the Jabalpur District, could hardly have been isolated places unconnected with other places by old routes. An authentic .... account of the road system existing in the District is, however, available only after the coming of the British. The Report on the Land Revenue Settlement of the Jubbulpore District, 1869 (Page six) described the road system thus:

"The principal roads of the District are the main line to Mirjapoor and Nagpore, running north and south respectively. These roads are too well-known to require any description here. The next in importance, in a commercial point of view, is the western road, running parallel with the Great Indian Peninsula Railway, towards

1. R. Thapar, Asoka and the Decline of the Mauryas, p. 234.

the valley of the Nerbudda about 52 miles in length, as far as the boundary of the district, of which above 8 miles are metalled, the rest being only a kutcha road with several broken down bridges and culverts and it is almost impassable for carts between June and November, and even later, the country being low and the road not raised in several parts. The next in importance is the military road to Saugor, which extends in this district to the base of the Bhaner hills, a distance of 40 miles. For about 20 miles this road is metalled and bridged up to the Hirun river; beyond that it is neither raised or metalled but only marked out, and several very bad streams have to be crossed. This road too is closed, to cart traffic from the middle of June to October. Then there is the road to Mundla, which is a fair line as the boundary of this district extends, some 12 miles to the foot of the Nagar hills. Besides these roads, there is a minor line to the east, extending as far as Sohagpore, formerly in Mundla and now transferred to Rewah; and another towards Patun leading on through Pergunnah Tejgurh in Dumoh to Rehlee in Saugor. Both these roads are partially raised and bridged, and are much frequented by traders employing bullock carriage. In the extreme north of the district, the road connecting Saugor and Damoh with the Mirzapore high road at Jokye, passes over some 20 miles of country in this district and although very little care and expense have hitherto been bestowed on this road, yet it is in a very fair state, as it passes over firm soil for the entire distance, the only drawback being a few muddy streams which cross the road. As this road will soon become an important Railway feeder, measures have largely been taken for improving it. The only other road I shall allude to, is a local line, connecting Sehore with Kuttunghee on the road to Saugor over which a good deal of grain is conveyed towards Saugor and Bhopal. The road has been marked out and a few bridges constructed but much has yet to be done to complete the work. The new sub-division of Bijiraghogurh is at present without a cart-road of any kind, and such a thing as a cart is unknown in the Pergunnah, except the few lately introduced by Railway contractors for the conveyance of Railway sleepers from the extensive Survey Forests of this Pergunnah. A short line connecting the town of Bijiraghogurh with the Railway has lately been marked out, but from the want of bridges and culverts over the numerous hill streams which cross the roads it cannot be used at present, more especially, as the road passes over black soil nearly all the way. This road too will in time, if carried on eastwards as far as our boundary extends, become an important Railway feeder and will draw all the traffic from the important town of Muddunpoor in Myher, and parts adjacent, now almost landlocked."

The Development of Roads.

It was in the year 1887 that the necessity of developing the district roads in a systematic way was realised for the first time and Government decided to prepare specific district road schemes for all the districts of the then Provinces. "Previous to its preparation, there did not exist in a concise form any record showing the length, style of construction and annual cost of maintenance of finished roads in each district of the provinces, nor with perhaps one or two exceptions had any reliable forecast been made of the requirements of each district in the way of new lines of communications, the class of work to be followed in their design and the cost of their construction. And it was found necessary to specially depute a Public Works Officer, Mr. C. S. Palmer, Executive Engineer, for purpose of ascertaining the requirements of each district and the best means of giving effect to them. He was instructed to visit each district and in consultation with the District Officers and local bodies to draw up a complete scheme of new roads to meet present and future requirements, in so far as it was possible to ascertain them. This has been done and the result is complete Road Scheme for the Provinces which will be guide in all future annual operations."[1] The objective of the administration was stated thus: "The standard road for the immediate future will be an improved fair weather road having all ghats and steep places eased off, river and nullah crossings made practicable, and bad sections (only) metalled or laid with moorum (gravel). Special orders were also issued during the year for bringing works executed by local bodies under professional inspection."[2] The road programme was also made the basis for a complete scheme of famine works.

The development of the railway system was necessarily followed by a change in the scheme of road construction. The old trunk roads lost their value and the policy was adopted of constructing feeder roads to the railway and also roads useful for administrative purposes, bringing large towns, villages and grain centres in touch with the central markets.

An account of the road system in the District in 1908 is given below.

"From Jubbulpore a number of metalled roads lead to out lying districts which, before the opening of the recently constructed railway lines, were important trade and military routes. These are the Jubbulpore-Damoh (63 miles), the Jubbulpore-Seoni (86 miles),

1. Report on the Administration of the Central Provinces, 1888-89, p. 53.
2. *Ibid*, 1887-88, p. XIV.

and the Jubbulpore-Mandla (58 miles) roads. Other roads lead from Jubbulpore to Patan, Deori, and Dindori in Mandla, of which the two later are partly metalled, while the Patan road is unmetalled. From the south-west of the District trade goes to Shahpura station. The principal roads from Sihora are towards Patan and Majholi, and are unmetalled. A considerable amount of trade comes to Katni from the Native States to the north, chiefly by roads from Bijiraghogurh from Rewah through Barhi, and from Damoh. The in the north are not so advanced, apart from the railways. The total length of metalled roads is 108 miles and of unmetalled roads 301 miles, and the expenditure on maintenance in 1903-04 was Rs. 67,000. More than 200 miles of the more important roads are managed by Public Works Department, and the remainder by the District Council. There are avenues of trees on 74 miles."[1]

Even at this stage the Murwara tahsil was perhaps the worst off for roads. Road communication in this tahsil, however, had greatly improved since the Settlement of 1869. A good road ran north-east-wards to Bijiraghogarh, and Barhi, lying still further east had also been connected by road and in 1913 a road from Murwara to Bada-gaon in the western corner was under construction.

Gradually the net-work of roads in the District was extended and improved. In years of scarcity road works constituted a major relief operation. The District had 181 miles of metalled roads and 378 miles of unmetalled roads in 1921-22. In 1930-31 the length of metalled roads was 230 miles and of unmetalled roads 332 miles.

The road construction programme made considerable headway on account of the impetus given to it by the Nagpur plan, 'The Post-War Road Development Programme' prepared for the Central Provinces and Berar in 1947-48, the 'Five Year Plan' for Development of Central Provinces and Berar (1947-52) and the high priority assigned to this segment of national development in the three consecutive Five Year Plans of economic development. The table below depicts the progress of road development from 1935 upto the end of the Second Plan:

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1. Imperial Gazetteer of India, 1908, Vol. XIV, p. 214.

Class of roads	Length in miles			
	1935	1947	1956	1961
1. Class I	222.81	267.00	270.75	
2. Class II	77.37	45.87	134.87	635.70
3. Class III	Nil	66.00	66.25	
4. National Highways	Nil	96.00	96.00	96.00
Total	300.18	414.87	567.87	731.70

Note:—Figures are exclusive of Forest Roads and Village roads.

ROAD TRANSPORT

According to Nagpur Plan the roads have been divided into five classes, *viz.*,

(1) National Highways,
(2) State Highways,
(3) Major District Roads,
(4) Other District Roads, and
(5) Village Roads.

The above mentioned classes of roads can, as envisaged in the Nagpur Plan, be conveniently divided into two groups as under:—

(1) Main Roads.—They consist of National Highways, State Highways and Major District Roads forming the main system throughout the length and breadth of the country, connecting State capitals, major ports, foreign highways, busy commercial towns, industrial centres and other places of importance and also roads required for strategic needs of the country.

(2) Other Roads.—They consist of minor district roads, classified village roads and Forest Roads serving the interior of the district, linking rural areas and functioning as branches and feeders for the main roads.

The following table shows the distribution of roads according to classes:—

S. No.	Category of Roads	Length in miles	Kms.
1.	National Highways	96.00	153.60
2.	State Highways	81.95	131.10
3.	Major District Roads	64.50	103.20
4.	Minor District Roads	269.20	430.70
5.	Village Roads	217.21	347.60
6.	Forest Roads	218.00	348.80
7.	Community Development Block Roads	75.55	120.90
8.	Municipal and Janapada Roads	120.45	129.70

National Highways

This district is traversed by two National Highways, viz., Jabalpur-Mirzapur Road and Jabalpur-Nagpur (New Great Northern) Road. These roads are maintained by the State Public Works Department from the proceeds of the Central Roads Fund.

Jabalpur-Mirzapur Road.—The total length of the road in the District is 65.80 miles (105.30 Km) and is black-topped throughout. This is a part of the Great Northern Road running from Nagpur to Khutra pass near Mirzapur, covering a distance of 350 miles. "It originally formed part of the Grand Deccan Road, projected many years ago to run from Mirzapore via Jubbulpore and Nagpore, through the Nizam's Dominion to Ahmednagar and thence to Bombay."[1]

The Roadway and its metalling were completed in 1852-53 though construction of bridges for the most part remained to be done and was vigorously pursued later. Till the streams and rivers were bridged traffic remained suspended during the rainy season. Even in 1932 it was motorable during the rains with difficulty as cross channels were cut by rain water in the moorumed length. The Hiran in 23rd mile could be crossed in the rains by a ferry capable of taking cars. A temporary bridge remained in service every year from 15th November to 5th June[2]. In 1935 a 426 feet long submersible bridge on the Hiran was constructed at a cost of Rs. 1,18,109 It is now an all weather road, fully black-topped and bridged. Due to the submersible bridge on the Hiran, the traffic closes for a few hours in case of high floods. The road was considered of primary importance from the military, political and general points of view. Commercially, it was of secondary importance. The importance of this road declined considerably on the opening of the former East Indian and Great Indian Peninsula railways. It is only recently that it has regained much of its lost importance primarily on account of an increase in motor traffic.

An interesting account of this road traversing the District has been given by European travellers who pased through this District during the last decade of the 18th century. One of the travellers going from Nagpur to Mirzapur writes that he entered the District at Tilwaraghat where he found an excellent tiled serai built by the Marathas as a shelter for the travellers. This was the road through which cotton was imported from Nagpur into the British territories of the northern India The traveller states that the road between Garha and Jabalpur was in a very good condition. Beyond Jabalpur

1. Report on the Administration of the Central Provinces 1862, p. 56.
2. Motor Guide 1931, Sec. II, p. 93.

city also the road was, excepting for certain parts, *i.e.*, from Panagar to Bhuragarh and Gosalpur to Sihora, in fairly good condition.[1]

It is still the main road from Jabalpur to Mirzapur and thence to Allahabad and other towns in Uttar Pradesh, providing inter-state communication with Uttar Pradesh. The Central Railway runs parallel to the road. It passes through the tahsil headquarters of Sihora (*26th mile*) and Katni-Murwara (*57th mile*), the latter being a large manufacturing town. Other important places falling on the road are Panagar (10th mile), Gosalpur (19th mile) Sleemanabad (40th mile), Piprod (47th mile) Jhingri (54th mile) and Chaka (60th mile). The road is connected with Deori, Sihora, Sleemanabad and Katni Railway stations by feeder roads. It is an important outlet for jungle produce, wheat, rice, gram, etc., and carries heavy traffic. Several roads from the interior generally motorable in the open season meet this main road and convey the produce of the interior to the railway.

Jabalpur-Nagpur Road.—Also known as the New Great Northern Road, it is a continuation of the Mirzapur-Jabalpur Road to Nagpur. It runs for 30.20 (48.30 Kms) miles in the District. It is metalled and bridged throughout its length and is motorable all the year round. The road surface is generally in excellent condition. Before 1932, the road crossed Narmada river at Gwarighat, 5 miles from Jabalpur, where there was a temporary bridge which was erected by the 15th December every year and a ferry capable of taking cars across was maintained during the rains. Subsequently a bridge 1,114 feet long was constructed across the Narmada at a cost of Rs. 4,65,497 at Tilwaraghat, and was opened in 1932. This bridge too is closed for traffic for some hours during high floods.

Until 1870 this road was one of the most important trade routes in India when mail from Bombay to Calcutta was carried by carts. It received the first set—back when the Great Indian Peninsula and East Indian Railways were linked up at Jabalpur in 1870. It remained of great consequence till the opening of Gondia—Jabalpur extension of the Satpura Branch of the Bengal-Nagpur Railway which established direct link between Nagpur and Jabalpur and brought the intervening districts into communication with the two Railway termini and served the large local traffic of grain and timber from Seoni District.

The portion of the road (Jabalpur-Nagpur Road) lying within the District of Jabalpur was fully completed by 1862-63. Leaving

1. Early European Travellers in Nagpur Territories, 1932, pp. 79—82.

Jabalpur it crossed the Narmada by a trestle bridge. From the foot of the Satpura hills it wounded its way up the range at an easy gradient to a height of 400' and entered the Seoni District through the Silba pass. Until 1862 the road from Jubbulpore to Nagpore was nothing more than a cart tract over a rugged and mountainous country; but in October 1865 a mail cart was driven experimentally from one place to other, making use almost the whole way of a regular road, made and bridged. It was quite the most interesting of all the works in these Provinces.[1]

Again the Report says that "for the last three working seasons, it has employed many of our best engineers and absorbed a large part of our Budget Grants........Gangs of labourers, many thousands strong, have been collected from great distances, and been held together with constant care, in tracts always wild, and sometimes very insalubrious."[2]

Villages of Bargi and Hulki lie on the road. It is maintained by State Public Works Department on agency basis on behalf of the Government of India.

State Highways

The total length of the State Highways in the District on 31st March 1961 was 81.95 miles (131.10 Km). The roads included in this category have been described below:

Jabalpur-Kundam-Shahpura-Dindori Road.—The length of this road in the District is 39.70 miles (63.50 Km). It is black-topped throughout. In the beginning it is merged with the Jabalpur-Mirzapur road and it branches off in the 1st furlong of the second mile and runs east towards Kundam. Except between miles 11-12 and 16-17 it passes through wheat and rice fields. The village Kundam is reached in the 29th mile.

In 1908 the road was metalled only for the first 12.50 miles (20.00 Km.), the remainder upto the border of the District being third class. The Banjaras carried on considerable traffic in grain, harra, hemp, tilli and mahua along this road by means of pack animals. An estimate was then prepared to improve the road gradually to class I upto Kundam, by taking up short lengths every year. Till 1932 except during very heavy rains it was motorable upto Kundam. It is now an all—weather road, fully black-topped upto the border of Jabalpur District. However, heavy rains

1. Report on the Administration of the Central Provinces, 1864-65, p. XV.
2. *Ibid*, pp. 31-32.

sometimes flood the nullahs to overflow and consequently stop the traffic for sometime till the flood water recedes. It is the main and direct road to Dindori tahsil (Mandla district) from Jabalpur via Kundam and Shahpura and is an important outlet for forest produce, paddy and wheat.

Jabalpur—Mandla Road.—This road which links the two District headquarters runs for 13.25 miles (21.20 Kms.) within the Jabalpur District through flat and cultivated country. It was at one time a very important road of the District, though its commercial importance was considerably reduced by the opening of the railway from Nainpur to Mandla. The road surface is good and is motorable throughout the year except in very heavy rains when some of the crossings are in floods and impassable for a few hours. The road is bridged throughout except in mile 5 where it crosses the river Gaur, a tributary of the Narmada. A submersible bridge has been constructed which is submerged during heavy floods and becomes impassable. Berela village is reached in mile 10, where a large weekly market is held and considerable quantity of grain is despatched to Jabalpur. It is also an important outlet for the forest produce of both the districts. Motor lorries and cars run daily between Jabalpur and Mandla. In mile 12 of the road, a road branches off towards east and goes to Niwas.

The first section of the road, six miles in length, was completed some years back, and work on the second section of the road, 20 miles in length, was started by the Public Works Department in December, 1874. "Work was commenced in December last, as it is not possible to commence earlier, owing to the unhealthiness of the jungles, which the road traverses and at the close of the year a little over Rs. 42,000 had been expended, mainly on the earth work, one half of which has been completed.[1]". The earth work was practically completed during the next year, *i.e.*, 1875-76.

The first six miles of this road, or upto the Gour river, were metalled in 1878-79 and also the Nagar-Pahar ghat which is a few miles further on. During the next year the remaining portion of this road in Jabalpur District was also metalled as stone was found near the road side. The Jabalpur-Mandla road was practically complete and was opened for traffic in 1883-84, the total outlay till that year having amounted to Rs. 5.97 lakhs.

Jabalpur-Damoh Road via Katangi.—This is a class I road, 66 miles in length out of which 29 miles (46.40 Km.) are within the

1. Report on the Administration of the Central Provinces, 1874-75, p. 77.

Jabalpur District. This road was of considerable military importance as it connects Brigade Headquarters at Jabalpur with those at Jhansi, via Damoh, Sagar and Lalitpur. Commercially as well it was important road for the movement of goods from areas included in Damoh district. It was deprived of much of its importance by the construction of Katni-Bina branch of the Indian. Midland section of the Great Indian Peninsula Railway. The surface of the road is black-topped and is motorable practically throughout the year. The road was transferred to the Public Works Department in November, 1877 on account of its importance as a Provincial road. The first 23 miles of the road from Jabalpur were completed in 1879-80 and opened to traffic during the year. In 1881-82 a temporary low level bridge which could be dismantled during the rains was constructed across the Hiran River and which very much facilitated the traffic in this section. The entire road was completed in the year 1883-84.

The road commences at 0 mile, near the District Court, Jabalpur. The first 2.25 miles form part of the Jabalpur-Mirzapur road. There are two raised causeways in miles 8 (over Omti Nala) and 13, and 2 submersible bridges in miles 11 (over Magardha Nalla) and 23 (Hiran River). During heavy rains they are submerged and the traffic is then held up till the flood subsides. The road passes through flat country, rich black cotton soil with wheat fields on both sides. The important villages by the side of the road are Belkhadu in mile 12, Boria in mile 16, Bhiloda in mile 17, Lohari in mile 20, Pondi in mile 22 and Katangi in mile 24. In the 6th mile (miles 5.65) the road bifurcates; one of them leads to Katangi as shown above and the other turns to south-western direction and runs as Jabalpur-Damoh Road via Patan. At Pondi a branch of the road turns southward to Patan—a distance of 12 miles. Again at Katangi, there is a bifurcation and a road branching off from the Jabalpur-Damoh road runs to Majholi, a distance of 9 miles.

Major District Roads

The total length of these roads in the District on 31st March 1961 was 64.50 miles (103.20 Kms.) Out of this length 24.75 miles had bituminous surface while 39.75 miles were water bound mecadam. The two roads under this category are: —

S. N.	Name of Road	Length (Miles)	Length (Km)
1.	Jabalpur-Patan Road	20.50	32.80
2.	Katni-Barhi-Khitoli Road	44.00	70.40

Jabalpur-Patan Road.—This road provides an alternative route to Damoh. It branches off to the west from the direct route, i.e., Jabalpur-Damoh road in the 5th mile and rejoins it at Abhana in mile 55, beyond the boundary of the District. The length of the road within the District is 20.50 miles (32.80 Km.), half black topped and half Water Bound Mecadam. The road has low bank and passes through flat country of rich black cotton soil with high-bounded rice and wheat fields which causes the road to be submerged at places. Patan is reached in 20th mile if mileage is counted from Jabalpur. It carries very heavy traffic of grain and jungle produce from Damoh District to Jabalpur.

In the first decade of this century "the most important of the gravelled roads was the Jubbulpore-Patan Road (18 miles) which is to be metalled to attract trade from Patan, the second largest country town in the District and seat of a large bazar." [1]

Katni-Barhi-Khitoli Road.—The road is 44 miles (70.40 Km.) in length out of which 14.50 miles are black-topped and the rest Water Bound Mecadam. It is an important road as it provides an outlet to the Government forests at Majhagawan and carries heavy timber traffic from a larger part of the Katni tahsil to the Railway Station at Katni for export.

Barhi is reached in mile 29. Forests are crossed in miles 13-15, 22, 23 and 25-28 Wheat, paddy and sesamum fields could be seen by the side of the road. From Barhi the road turns southwards and ends at Khitoli. A road branches off to Chandia from Barhi-Khitoli section. From Barhi, a road 16 miles in length takes a north-western direction and leads to Bijairaghogarh. A road branching off to the north goes to Doli, another runs to Amarpur in the east and is 2½ miles in length upto the border.

It is proposed to construct a bridge on the river Chhoti Mahanadi on Katni-Barhi section The estimated cost of the bridge is Rs. 14,36,000. The actual length of the bridge is 778 ft. with 4 spans of 114 ft. each, 2 spans of 142 ft. each and 2 spans of 19 ft. each. The width of the road is 24 ft. The work of construction was begun in November, 1961 and is expected to be completed in June, 1967.

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1. Central Provinces District Gazetteers, Jabalpur District, 1908, p. 246.

Minor District Roads

The total length of these roads in the District is 269.20 miles (430.70 Km.). Out of this length the surface of 62.05 miles is bituminous, 153 miles water bound mecadam and 54.15 miles is unmetalled. The following are the important roads under this category some of which have also been described :

S. No.	Road	Length Miles	Length Km.
1.	Sihora-Majholi-Katao Road	20.50	32.80
2.	Jabalpur-Shahpura Road	20.00	32.00
3.	Sihora-Majhagawan-Siloni	24.50	39.20
4.	Murwara-Salaiya Railway Station ..	29.20	46.70
5.	Patan-Kaimori-Pondi	12.40	19.95
6.	Shahpura-Patan	10.00	16.00
7.	Barela-Niwas	10.00	16.00
8.	Panagar-Singaldip-Majholi	18.75	30.00
9.	Khitola-Khimarkeda-Khamtra	33.60	53.75
10.	Sleemanabad-Bohribund	13.10	20.45
11.	Chaka-Bijairaghogarh	16.00	25.60
12.	Bijairaghogarh-Barhi	16.40	26.25
13.	Sihora-Bohribund- Salaiya	29.00	46.50
14.	Mirganj-Shahpura	9.10	14.60

Sihora-Majholi-Katao Road.—It branches off from mile 27 of the Jabalpur-Mirzapur road and runs west through Jabalpur District and continuing enters the Damoh District to join the Jabalpur-Damoh road in 30th mile. The total length in the District is nearly 20 miles out of which 11.25 miles are black-topped and the rest is water bound mecadam. Majholi is reached in mile 12. The road is not motorable in rains owing to low crossings in miles 7, 9 and 17 on Malna Nullah, Sohar river and Kaiyer river which have low level cause-ways only. It is an important road as all the timber and other produce from Damoh District and Sihora, Katni and Jabalpur tahsils are transported by this road to Sihora, the nearest Railway Station for this tract.

Jabalpur-Shahpura Road.—At the time of 1869 settlement (the 30 year's Settlement), the road next in importance to the Mirzapur-Nagpur road was the Western Road, parallel to the then Great

Indian Peninsula Railway towards the valley of Narmada. The first eight miles were then metalled and the rest were cutcha with several broken down bridges and culverts almost impassable for carts between June and November. It is the old Bombay Road which is now known as Jabalpur-Shahpura Road and connects the important village of Shahpura with Jabalpur. Its importance was reduced due to the opening of the Great Indian Peninsula Railway which absorbed most of the traffic. Formerly it had considerable trade in cotton, when it was policed at regular intervals and provided with rest houses all along is length. In 1908, when Mr. Nelson wrote the District Gazetteer, it was maintained as a first class road only as far as Mirganj. It has been described in two sections (1) Jabalpur-Marble Rocks Road and (2) Mirganj-Shahpura Road.

Jabalpur Marble Rocks Road.—The total length of this road is 13 miles (20.80 Kms.). Out of this, first 10.38 miles overlap with other roads, *viz.*, the commencing 2 miles form part of Great Northern Road, and the next 8.38 miles are merged with the former Bombay Road, also called the Jabalpur-Shahpura Road It then takes a turn to the left ending in mile 13 in Bheraghat village. It is a very important road and has heavy motor and cart traffic throughout the year. The surface of the road is black-topped and is motorable in all the seasons.

Mirganj-Shahpura Road.—The road is 9.10 miles (14.60 Km.) in length and is a gravelled one. It passes through wheat fields. Two miles before it reaches Shahpura, there is a bifurcation on the right leading to Patan.

Shahpura-Patan.—The road commences from mile 18 of Jabalpur-Shahpura road and running towards north, terminates in mile 20 of Jabalpur-Patan road. The road is 10 miles in length and the surface is water bound mecadam. It passes through open wheat country. It is an important road as Shahpura is the nearest Railway Station for Patan, the headquarters of the tahsil. All the traffic from the interior to the railway passes on this road.

Barela-Niwas Road.—This road branches off the Jabalpur-Mandla Road at mile 12 near Barela and runs towards the east. The length of the road is 28.63 miles out of which the first 10 miles (16.00 Km.) are within the District and the rest in Mandla District. About half of the length of the road is black-topped and the rest water bound mecadam. The road traverses wheat and rice fields. Silondi exports quantities of till, mustard, lac and harra to the Railway Station at

Sihora along the Sihora-Majhagawan-Silondi Road, 24.50 miles in length (10.65 miles black-topped, 12.50 miles cutcha and the rest water bound mecadam). Panagar-Singladip-Majholi Road, 18.75 miles (30.00 Km) in length (3.75 miles black-topped, 9 miles water-bound mecadam and 6 miles cutcha) connects Panagar Railway Station with the important market of Majholi.

Village Roads

The total length of the roads falling under this category was 217·20 miles (347·60 Km) in 1960-61. These roads are mostly fair weather roads and become totally unserviceable in rainy season. Out of the total length, 13.20 miles were having bituminous surface, 108 miles water bound mecadam and the rest 96 miles unmetalled. The following are the principal village roads :—

1. Thingri Bilehri-Deogaon Road 15.63 miles (24.70 Km)
2. Katni-Khamtara Road 29.00 miles (46.40 Km)
3. Imlai-Padwar Road 9.75 miles (15.60 Km)
4. Kundam-Silondi Road 10.88 miles (17.45 Km)
5. Shahpura-Belkheda Road 15.00 miles (24.00 Km)
6. Bilehri-Sleemanabad Road 11.63 miles (18.60 Km)
7. Ponda-Lamkhana Road 7.00 miles (11.20 Km)

Forest Roads

The total length of these roads was 218.0 miles (348.80 Km) in 1960-61. These roads are maintained by the Forest Department as fair weather roads to establish links between headquarters of different forest ranges and to facilitate access to forest produce. The length of forest roads in different divisions was as shown in the table below:

S.No.	Name of Forest Division	Length	
		Miles	Km.
1.	Jabalpur	65.0	104.20
2.	Murwara	65.0	104.20
3.	Sihora	56.0	89 20
4.	Bargi	32.0	51 20
	Total	218	348 80

Community Development Block Roads

The roads (a mile or more in length) aggregated 75.55 miles (120.90 Km) in 1960-61. These roads are mostly fair weather roads constructed by the Government with its own monetary contribution and peoples' physical participation. These have been handed over to the Public Works Department for maintenance.

Municipal and Janapada Roads

These roads covering 120.45 miles (192.70 Km), in 1960-61 are maintained by the local self-governing bodies functioning in the District, i.e., Municipal Corporation, Jabalpur and various Municipal Committees and Janapada Sabhas, Jabalpur Municipal Corporation alone maintained 93.10 miles of roads. Most of these Municipal and Janapada roads are black-topped or asphalted.

Scheme for Completion of Incomplete Roads.—During the scarcity of 1958, construction of several roads was commenced, but they were left incomplete on the return of normal economic conditions Due to their incompleteness the utility of such roads was very limited. Government has now (1961), sanctioned a sum of Rs. 16,35,000 for the completion of these roads during the Third Plan.

S. No. (1)	Name of road (2)	Length to be completed (3) Miles	Amount sanctioned (4) Rs.
1.	Imlai-Padwar Road	13.75	1,69,000
2.	Kundam-Silondi Road	10.87	1,75,000
3.	Chaurai-Jhirua Road	9.00	1,57,000
4.	Chaka-Bijairaghogarh Road	16.00	1,00,000
5.	Khitola-Umeriapan Road	12.00	2,00,000
6.	Ponda-Lamkhana Road	7.00	1,31,000
7.	Ponda-Bichhia Road	9.00	1,38,000
8.	Rani Durgavati Samadhi to Midki	7.00	1,40,000
9.	Katiaghat-Burman Road	6.00	60,000
10.	Barhi-Bijairaghogarh Road	15.00	1,60,000
11.	Seoni-Bartara Road	5.75	20,000
12.	Majhgawan-Silondi Road	28.00	1,80,000
13.	Sleemanabad-Bilehri Road	1.00	5,000
	Grand Total	140.37	16,35,000

VEHICLES AND CONVEYANCES

The general mode of conveyance on the roads has been bullock carts, though on the Jabalpur-Mirzapur Road and Great Northern Road horses and camel caravans used to ply. During the year 1906-1910 camel carts were used even for passenger transport in which four camels used to be utilized at a time. Traffic from Jabalpur to Sagar used to be carried in camel carts. For shorter distances within the District the bullock-carts served the purpose. Similarly the transport of goods was in the hands of Banjaras who used bullocks and buffaloes for this purpose. Their main business was to transport Kirana and *ghee* from Jabalpur to Bhopal. Sagar, Mandla and Bilaspur.

At present the principal means of transport in the District are motor vehicles of all kinds, horse-driven tongas, cycle-rikshas and bullock-carts. The beasts of burden used in this district are chiefly bullocks. The use of mules and horses is comparatively less The bullock-cart is the chief means of transport in the rural areas

Motor Vehicles.

The total number of motor vehicles in the District registered by the Regional Transport Authority Jabalpur on 31st December 1961, was 4412. The table below gives the details of the vehicles registered during the last nine years.

Years		Cars	Buses	Lorries (Trucks)	Motor Cycles	Taxies	Other	Total
1953	..	926	142	893	225	6	65	1758
1954	..	955	148	453	245	6	70	1878
1955	..	999	154	514	280	6	79	2032
1956	..	1074	166	600	325	8	79	2267
1957	..	1141	187	715	408	8	102	2571
1958	..	1221	238	754	481	9	111	2814
1959	..	1257	271	792	515	9	120	2964
1960	..	1360	315	879	593	9	126	3282
1961	..	1331	627	1365	736	40	304	4412

All the motor vehicles mentioned above are subject to taxation under Motor Vehicles Act. The Regional Transport Officer, Jabalpur is the Secretary of the registering authority under the Act.

Bullock-cart.—The bullock-cart is still the basic means of transport especially in rural areas where the roads are few and their condition poor. The bullock—carts in India are of rural origin and therefore, they fit into the pattern of rural economy. The carts in use in this region are of crude design and construction. Some have very narrow lateral tyres, and as a rule, the bearings allow the wheels considerable lateral play. The result is that the wheels move unsteadily on the road surface and cut it badly. The iron tyres protect the wheel rather than the road.

The bullocks not only serve as drought animals but also help the villager in his agricultural operations. There were 20,270. carts in the District according to Livestock Census of 1961. Of these only 756 were in urban areas.

Horse-driven Tonga.—The other means of transport which is popular and within reach of the average resident of the District is the horse-driven tonga. In the year 1960-61 about 200 registered tongas plied in the District. The rise in the price of horse feed has made tongas less profitable, more so, in a town like Jabalpur where the competition from rickshas has been increasing.

Bicycle.—It is the vehicle of the common man and is becoming very popular day by day. The total number of cycles registered in the District in 1959-60 was a little over 38,000. The largest number was registered with Municipal Corporation, Jabalpur *i.e.*, 25,000 approximately.

Ricksha.—It is now-a-days becoming increasingly popular in JabalpurCorporation and Cantonment areas. The number of rickshas was 2,546 on 31st March 1961. In other towns of the District the cycle-ricksha has yet to establish itself.

Public Transport

In the year 1939 the present Motor Vehicles Act, was passed and the State Government framed the rules thereunder in 1940 with a view to regulating the services of passenger transport as well as goods transport. This helped in curbing unhealthy competition amongst motor operators, racing of vehicles and charging of abnormal fares. Thus the Act, helped in putting the transport industry on sound and organised basis and gradual improvement was registered.

In the year 1956 new operators were required to form registered companies and operate registered firms under the control of the State and Regional Transport Authorities. This resulted in effective control over the operators and consequent better performance of the service.

It was realised during the Second World War that the strength of the administration lies (in peace or war) on the developed means of communication, and therefore the Government wanted to provincialise the transport services. Operation of combined services, shared by Railways, State Government and the public was under contemplation. But for want of some agreement with the public, it could not materialise till after the attaining of independence in 1947.

This scheme was ultimately given the shape of nationalisation and the operation of passenger transport by Government-owned companies was decided upon As a result of this, private enterprise in the District was gradually dislodged by the Government undertaking from 1956. The process has continued to date with the result that now there is a net-work of services run by the Government undertaking and only on some of the routes private operators are allowed to exist. This has helped to a considerable extent in raising the standard of services to the advantage of the public.

The Central Provinces Transport Services Ltd., was started in 1947 with headquarters at Nagpur and the seat of the head-office was shifted to Jabalpur in 1956, consequent upon the re-organisation of States. On 15th June 1962, the Central Provinces Transport Services which operated in Mahakoshal and Vindhya Pradesh areas and Madhya Bharat Roadways which operated in Madhya Bharat and Bhopal regions were merged together and a Corporation called the Madhya Pradesh State Road Transport Corporation was formed with headquarters at Bhopal. From that date Jabalpur has become the seat of the divisional headquarters of the Corporation. Jabalpur is also the seat of Depot Office of the Madhya Pradesh State Road Transport Corporation with a sub-Depot at Katni.

The following are some of the important routes (in 1961) operated from the Jabalpur Depot:

Serial No.	Route	No. of services running up and down	Mileage covered daily
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)
1	Jabalpur-Barela onwards Mandla	20	200
2	Jabalpur-Katangi onwards Sagar..	22	506
3	Jabalpur-Katni onwards Rewa-Chhatarpur ..	22	1,284
4	Jabalpur-Bargi onwards Nagpur	26	468

Rural Services.—The services run by the Corporation pass through the rural area and thus connect them with the towns. The following are some of the stages on routes in rural areas operated by the undertaking.

Serial	Route		Stages within Jabalpur district.	Mileage from Jabalpur.
1.	Jabalpur-Mandla	(i)	Gaurighat	5 miles
		(ii)	Barela	10 ,,
1.	Jabalpur-Sagar	(i)	Belkhadu	10 ,,
		(ii)	Boria	16 ,,
		(iii)	Katangi	28 ,,
3.	Jabalpur-Narsimhapur	(i)	Bargi	18 ,,
4.	Jabalpur-Katni	(i)	Panagar	10 ,,
		(ii)	Budhagar	16 ,,
		(iii)	Gosalpur	19 ,,
		(iv)	Sihora	26 ,,
		(v)	Dhangawan	33 ,,
		(vi)	Sleemanabad	40 ,,
		(vii)	Teori	43 ,,
		(viii)	Piprod	48 ,,
		(ix)	Katni	57 ,,
5.	Jabalpur-Mazhgawan	(i)	Sehora	26 ,,
		(ii)	Mazhgawan	36 ,,

The undertaking has provided booking offices at Barela, Katangi and Katni Road. Side shelters have also been provided at Belkhadu and Boria on Jabalpur-Sagar route; at Budhagar, Gosalpur, Sleemanabad, Teori and Piprod on Jabalpur-Katni route. Permanent bus stations with staying facilities have also been constructed at Katni, Sihora, and Katangi. Now there are eighteen bus stations on the road. There will be pucca bus stations or shelters at a distance of every 8 to 10 miles on the routes of this undertaking.

As the existing modes of conveyance were inadequate to cope up with the increasing traffic both goods and passengers, Din Shah Motor Services started functioning as back as 1914-15 and gradually extended its operations. Other firms which commenced their services from the mid-forties were the New Jabalpur Transport Limited and Sheikh Rasool Motor Transport Company, Limited. Later on, as this industry became more remunerative other operators also entered the field. Mention may be made of Shukla Motor Services, Sihora, Jabalpur Transport Development Company Limited. United Transport Company Limited, Mahakoshal

Transport Services Limited, Bundelkhand Motor Transport Company Limited, Jan Pariwahan Samiti Limited, etc. These private firms have been extending good travelling facilities to the people residing in the interior. There is a great demand even now from most of the villages in the interior for the introduction of bus services. Progressive construction of roads by Janapada Sabhas and Community Development Blocks will help the expansion of bus services in the interior villages of the District.

RAILWAYS

Jabalpur is situated on the Central Railway's Bombay-Allahabad Main Line. It is also the terminus of South Eastern Railway's Gondia-Jabalpur line. August, 1867 and March, 1870 will remain memorable dates in the history of railway development in Jabalpur District and Madhya Pradesh The first date marked the coming of the railway to Jabalpur. Though the first train had steamed into Jabalpur in the month of May, the line could not be opened for general traffic until August 1867. This was the Jabalpur-Allahabad section of the East Indian Railway. The second date signalled the arrival of a train from Bombay to Jabalpur, thus completing the railway link between Bombay and Calcutta. The inauguration was performed by His Excellency the Viceroy. The Duke of Edinburgh was also present. The event was considered as "perhaps the most considerable fact in the first decade of the history of these Provinces."[1]

These events had a far-reaching effect on the development of the country.

"It was not till August 1868 when the East Indian Railway opened a branch to Jubbulpore that the Central Provinces came fairly before the world. Upto this time travellers from the West had reached Nagpore and no further; but now, with the termini of the two Railways as poles, and the Imperial road from Nagpore to Jubbulpore as a connecting medium, the electric current of traffic passed to and fro across the whole breadth of the Provinces. These territories had now become one of the highways of communications between England and Eastern India, and the Great Northern Road with difficulty endured the stream of passengers and merchandise which passed over it."[2]. "Placed at the junction of the two Railway systems of Hindoostan", Jabalpur was described as "it is

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1. Report on the Administration of the Central Provinces, 1869-70, p. VIII

2. *Ibid*, p. IX.

by position, the Alexendria of the East and West of India"[1] and it was expected that with the opening of Suez Canal the commerce of a large portion of the valley of the Ganges as far south as Mirzapur and Benares will pass through Jabalpur. The later years were to witness the opening of railway lines from Katni to Bilaspur in the southeast, to Sagar-Bina in the west and from Jabalpur to Gondia in the south.

The total railway mileage in the District is shown below: —

Serial No.	Section	Mileage	Km.
1.	Jabalpur-Allahabad	67.50	108.00
2.	Jabalpur-Bombay	25.50	40.80
3.	Katni-Bina	30.25	48.40
4.	Katni-Bilaspur	22.50	36.00
5.	Jabalpur-Gondia	22.20	35.50
		167.95	268.70

Out of these, 22.20 miles (Jabalpur-Gondia) are narrow gauge and rest are broad gauge. 44.70 miles (Katni-Bilaspur and Jabalpur-Gondia) fall under the jurisdiction of South Eastern Railway and the rest under the Central Railway.

Jabalpur-Allahabad section belonged to the former East Indian Railway. The work on the section was commenced in the year 1863-64 and the railway was opened for general traffic in August, 1867. The line runs for 67.50 miles within the District alongside the Jabalpur-Mirzapur Road. Starting from Jabalpur the line takes a north-eastern direction and leaves the District near Jukehi. Jabalpur is 991 Kms. from Bombay. Important sections on the line are Deori, Gosalpur, Sihora Road, Sleemanabad Road, Niwar, and Katni. Jukehi station in Satna district is just on the Satna-Jabalpur border.

Jabalpur-Bombay Section.—The length of this section within the District is 25.50 (40.80 Km.) miles. The railway line between Bombay and Jabalpur was constructed in six stages and the last one, Sohagpur-Jabalpur, was opened for traffic on 8th March 1870. One of the largest works encountered in the construction of the line was the bridge over the Narmada near Jabalpur. The viaduct is 371 yards long. The construction of the Railway was made easier due to exhuming at various places large quantities of

1. *Ibid.*

excellent building stone from remains of temple edifices and cities of ancient Hindu dynasties, generally found in shapeless masses and covered with earth that had accumulated through centuries.[1] The Railway leaves the District at Bikrampur in Km. 950 from Bombay. Intermediate stations are Bhitoni, Bheraghat, and Madanmahal. A scheme for doubling of rail lines between Jabalpur and Katni has been sanctioned at an approximate cost of Rs. 3.5 crores. Work on Jabalpur-Gosalpur section (27.39 Km.), was taken up first and the line was opened to passenger traffic on 18th November, 1965. Similarly the work on stations between Dundi and Katni (37.39 Km.) was completed and the railway line was opened for passenger traffic on 20th November, 1965. The double line will facilitate in transporting increased supply of limestone.

In this connection it may be interesting to learn that the Jabalpur railway station was constructed by the East Indian Railway and served the Great Indian Peninsula Railway also, being common termini for the two lines of two separate Railway companies There was considerable difficulty in selecting such a fitting site for the station as should meet all the requirements of military, local and commercial interests of the place. A committee had to be specially appointed to deliberate upon this problem which took 5 years of labour to select the side. Regarding transhipment, the arrangement was that passengers as well as wagons carrying less than 12 tons were changed. It was, however, found to be inconvenient.

Katni-Bina Section.—This was constructed by the Indian Midland Railway which had on 2nd October, 1885 entered into a contract with the Secretary of State for India for the construction of some lines including this section. This Railway was later on merged with the Great Indian Peninsula Railway. This section was opened for traffic on New Year's Day of the year 1899. This line provided impetus to the trade of Murwara Tahsil. Transit charges to Bombay came down almost by 25 per cent and daily quotations of Bombay rates were telegraphically communicated to Murwara merchants. Exports from Katni (Railway Station of Murwara town) averaged more than 15,00,000 mds. and imports amounted to 13,00,000 mds. annually, which represented half the trade of the District.[2]

1. Report on the Administration of the Central Provinces, 1862-63, p. 89.
2. Report on the Land Revenue Settlement of Jabalpur District, 1907-12, p. 13.

This section extends westwards over a length of 30.25 miles within the District. The train stops at Hardua, (17 Kms. from Katni), Rithi (32 Kms.), and Salaiya (50 Kms.), Bina, on the main Bombay-Delhi line is at a distance of 263 Kms. from Katni *via* Damoh and Sagar.

Consequent upon the reorganisation of Railway system of India, Great Indian Peninsula Railway and some other Railways came to be known as Central Railway from 5th November, 1951 and the three lines described above became part of this newly constituted Railway.

Katni-Bilaspur Section.—Construction of this section eastwards from Katni was completed during the last decade of the 19th century. Umaria-Katni section was opened on 2nd November, 1886. The link between Katni and Murwara was opened on 1st January, 1901. Katni-Umaria line had already been extended to Bilaspur, *i.e.*, by January 18, 1891. The Bengal-Nagpur Railway which was formed in March, 1887, took over the Katni-Umaria State Railway in April, 1888. This was the first broad gauge line to form part of Bengal Nagpur Railway. The line runs for 22.50 miles through the Murwara tahsil with stations at Jhalwara, Katangi and Rupaund besides Katni.

Jabalpur-Gondia Section.—This was the latest addition to the railway map of Jabalpur District. It was opened in 1905. It was originally known as Satpura Branch of the Bengal-Nagpur Railway. It runs to the south and connects with the main line Bombay-Nagpur-Calcutta at Gondia via, Nainpur. It is a narrow gange line and 22.20 miles of its length lies within the District.

The line follows the alignment of the Jabalpur-Seoni road very closely so far as it lies within the District. Stations are situated at Howbagh, Gwarighat Bargi and Sukri. The Narmada is crossed at Gwarighat, by a very fine bridge of 11 spans of 100 feet the height from formation to river bed being 77 feet.

Rail—Borne Trade

The Railways are the main carriers of both goods and passenger traffic in this district. An interesting account of the pattern of trade that existed half a century back is provided by the Imperial Gazetteer of India:

> "Wheat and oilseeds are the principal exports. Hemp (*san*) is sent to both Calcutta and Bombay for export to England. Considerable quantities of *ghi* and forest produce are despatched

from Jubbulpore, but most of this comes from Seoni and Mandla. Hides and horns, bones and dried beef are also largely exported. Other exports are the manufactured and mineral products already mentioned. Salt comes principally from the Sambhar Lake and also from Bombay and Gujarat. Sugar from the Mauritius, and gur (unrefined sugar) from Bihar. Kerosene oil is now universally used for lighting, vegetable oil being quite unable to compete with it. Cotton cloth is imported from Ahmadabad and also from the Berar and Nagpur mills, as the local mills cannot weave cloth of any fineness. There is considerable trade in aniline dyes, and synthetic indigo has begun to find a market within the last few years. Transparent glass bangles are now brought in large numbers from Germany. A European firm, dealing in oilseeds, wheat, and myrabolams, has most of the export trade. The rest of the traffic is managed by Bhatias from Bombay and Cutchi Muhammadans. Marwaris act only as local brokers, and do not export grain by rail."[1]

In additition to the commodities named above, gram, pulses, sesamum, rape, mustard, linseed and hemp amongst agricultural produce, myrabolams, lac and *mahua* seed among forest produce and lime, and line-stone, bauxite, cement, porcelain are the principal articles of export from this district.

As will appear from the statement already made above, the principal imports into the District consist of coal, coke, red ochre, rice, salt, sugar, timber, potato, cotton manufactures, kerosine oil, tobacco, betel nuts, gunny bags, wrought and iron and iron and steel products.

Present Rail-Borne Traffic

(a) Central Railway.—The table given below shows the traffic carried, quantity of goods transported by goods train and by passenger and mixed trains, on the various stations of Central Railway in the District during the period 1950-61.

Year	Passengers (Nos-)	Goods (in quintal)	Coaching (in quintals)
1950	24,72,000	1,53,92,835	5,88,500
1951	22,86,898	199,28,795	8,65,145
1952	22,88,062	1,87,56,335	9,10,780
1953	26,55,300	1,53,65,610	19,53,290
1954	22,23,120	1,77,04,495	16,55,958
1955	25,92,913	1,70,61,658	19,57,595
1956	23,47,568	1,84,89,424	19,44,391
1957	22,35,773	1,91,61,113	16,64,663
1958	23,72,228	1,94,72,917	14,26,301
1959	21,14,423	2,06,20,180	15,57,723
1960	22,10,810	2,13,88 800	16,77,448
1961	25,72,283	2,27,30,074	18,24,494

1. Imperial Gazetteer of India, 1908, Vol. XIV, pp. 213-14.

Passenger Traffic.—The table shows that during the period under review, the highest number of passengers carried was 26,55,300 in 1953, followed by 25,92,913 in 1955, 25,72,283 in 1961 and 24,72,800 in 1950. It can seen that there was not much fluctuation in passenger, traffic during the period 1950-61.

Goods Traffic.—The table shows that there has been gradual growth in the quantity of goods transported by the Central Railway.

The volume of goods traffic increased from 153.9 lakh quintals in 1950 to 184.9 lakh quintals in 1956, 206.2 lakh quintals in 1959 to 227.3 lakh quintals in 1961. the highest on record during the period. This increase in volume of goods traffic may be chiefly ascribed to the greater interchange of goods in the wake of developmental activities being carried on in the District under the schemes of the Five Year Plans of the State.

The volume of goods traffic through coaches almost trebled from 5.9 lakh quintals to 18.2 lakh quintals during the 12 year period, 1950-1961, though there is no constant upward trend. There was continuous increase from 1950 to 1953 and from 1958 to 1961.

Rail—Borne Traffic (Narrow Gauze)

The table below gives an idea of the passenger traffic carried, quantity of goods transported by goods train and by passenger and mixed-trains, on narrow gauze section of the various stations of South Eastern Railway in the District during period 1951-52 to 1964-65.

Year	Number of Passengers Carried	Quantity (In quintals)
(1)	(2)	(3)
1951-52	96,999	11,495
1952-53	82,931	15,163
1953-54	83,590	22,101
1954-55	89,375	19,408
1955-56	1,01,023	27,628
1956-57	97,094	26,254
1957-58	96,550	1,63,212
1958-59 . ..	1,35,576	1,80,895
1959-60	1,49,988	2,75,207
1960-61	1,55,311	1,80,022
1961-62	1,58,210	1,82,000
1963-64	2,44,597	1,35,511
(1964-65 Upto October 1964).	1,49,993	39,167

Passenger Traffic.—The table shows that during the period under review, the highest number of passengers carried was 2,44,597 in 1963-64, followed by 1,58,210 in 1961-62, 1,55,311 in 1960-61 and 1,49,993 in 1964-65 (the last figure is incomplete). Thus, it can be seen from the table that passenger traffic has registered a constant rise since the year 1957-58.

Goods Traffic.—The volume of goods traffic has increased during the same period though there have been irregular ups and downs. The largest quantity carried was 2,75,207 quintals in 1959-60, followed by 1,82,000 quintals in 1961-62, 1,80,895 quintals in 1958-59 and 1,80,022 quintals in 1960-61. The increase in this category may be chiefly ascribed to the traffic of goods and commodities required for plan schemes.

Rail-Road Competition.—Gone are the days when road transport had to play the second fiddle to the Railways. Earlier it was not encouraged so as to prevent it from emerging as a competitor to the Railways. Developmental effort is now directed towards an integrated development of both railways and roads and the optimum use of both. Today they supplement rather than supplant each other.

In the beginning road transport lacked organisation and regularity. Inspite of all these draw-backs, the railways experienced considerable difficulty in meeting the competition from road transport services catering for short distance traffic on certain lengths. But railways continued to hold the traffic by careful adjustment of train timings, by the speeding up of trains, and on certain sections, by reducing fares. The improvement of roads and the popularity of the automobile have contributed greatly to the increase in road traffic. The carriage of merchandise by private carriers on a few roads adjacent to the railway, affects railway earnings to some extent. For example, Jabalpur-Shahpura road runs parallel to the Jabalpur-Itarsi section of Central Railway. Jabalpur-Seoni Road runs nearly parallel to narrow-guage section of Jabalpur-Gondia Railway and

Jabalpur-Katni Road also runs parallel to the Jabalpur-Allahabad section of Central Railway. But it may be generally said that the facilities offered by the railways on these sections continue to provide a more economical and convenient mode of transport for this traffic. Nevertheless, the buses have attained popularity mainly because they run through the heart of towns, whereas many railway stations are at some distance from the towns they serve. Moreover, industry and trade prefer road to the railways for transit of goods, as the movement is speedier, involves less change of goods in transit and reaches destinations inaccessible to the railways. However, the railway movement in bulky and heavy commodities as coal, cement, iron and steel and for industrial establishments which posses sidings or are situated near rail-heads, continues to be important. Timber, bamboo, tendu leaves and charcoal are some of the commodities moved by roads. Movement of food grains by trucks is important in Jabalpur District. There is considerable haulage of goods by road between Nagpur and Jabalpur.

WATER-WAYS, FERRIES AND BRIDGES

The District is interespersed by numerous streams and rivers. But, they are, more or less, useless for purposes of navigation because these rivers carry sufficient waters only in the rainy season. Even this water drains off in a few days.

Ferries.—At several points where important roads meet the rivers and nullahs there are no bridges or causeways and these have to be crossed in ferries when they are in flood. In all there are 40 ferries in the District which are maintained in different rivers as shown in Appendix.

AIR TRANSPORT

The District has no regular air service. An air strip at Dumna maintained by the Government of India, 4 miles away from Jabalpur is used only for Government purposes. The approach road is maintained by the State Government.

TRAVEL AND TOURIST FACILITIES

Serais and Dharmashalas.—No account of ancient serais and *dharmashalas* in the district is available. During the last sixty years many *dharmashalas* have been constructed by charitable trusts and philanthropic people for the convenience of travellers.

In Jabalpur city itself there are 8 *dharmashalas* and *serais* namely, Raja Gokuldas *Dharmashala*, Parsi *Dharmashala*, Muslim *serai*, Kachhi *Dharmashala*, Agarwal *Dharmashala*, Sahu Samaj *Dharmashala*, Bhuramal *Dharmashala* and Kukhtiyar *Dharmashala*. There are six other *Dharmashalas* in Jabalpur Tahsil, 2 of which are situated at Bheraghat and one each at Barela, Baghraji, Panagar and Bargi.

In Katni Tahsil there is one Municipal *Serai* and four *Dharmashalas*. The *serai* and two *Dharmashalas* namely, Jaidayal *Dharmashala* and Marwari *Dharmashala* are in Katni town and the other two at Doli and Rithi.

In Sihora Tahsil there are 3 *Dharmashalas* situated at Dhimarkheda Khamtra and Rupnath. Patan tahsil has two at Belkheda and Shahpura.

Hotels.—The increase in road and railway passenger traffic has been mainly responsible for the establishment of hotels and eating-houses. There are a number of good hotels in Jabalpur city which offer lodging and boarding facilities to travellers and tourists. In addition, the city has a large number of eating-houses. These hotels and eating-houses are, however, a feature associated mainly with urban life. In fact, these could be found in all urban areas of the District. The rural areas too have few such hotels and eating-houses. The villages on the roadside have, however, small tea-shops which offer the passengers light refresments and tea.

Circuit Houses, Rest Houses and Dak Bungalows.—These are maintained in the District mainly by two departments, namely (i) The Public Works Department and (ii) the Forest Department.

The primary purpose of maintaining these rest houses is to offer facilities of boarding and lodging to touring government officials coming to the District on duty. But they are made available to members of the public also if accommodation is available, unreserved or unoccupied.

The P. W. D. Rest Houses are controlled by the Executive Engineer of P. W. D. (Building and Roads Branch). There are sixteen rest houses and dak bungalows maintained by the Public Works Department in the District.

There is only one forest rest house at Kundwara in Jabalpur tahsil.

The circuit houses are intended for V. I. Ps., Secretaries, Heads of Departments and other Class I Officers of State Government and Central Government. The Collector of the District is the controlling authority for alloting accommodation in the Circuit Houses. There are two circuit houses in the District which are situated at Jabalpur on Station Road at a distance of about four furlongs from the Railway station.

POST, TELEGRAPHS AND TELEPHONES

Act, XVII of 1854, which regulated the working of post offices, replaced a similar Act, XVII, of 1837. This Act. marked the beginning of the present organisation of the post-office. But it concerned itself with the working and control of Imperial Post only. The system of postal communication in the interior of the District was different; its operation was not covered by the Imperial Post. This was known as the District Post the original subject of which was generally to provide communication between the head quarters of the District and revenue and Police stations in the interior. As the District dak-system developed and several post-offices increased in importance they were absorbed into Imperial Department and the funds thus set free were utilized in the further improvement of the rural delivery.

District Post-offices existed at the Police Station House and at the Sadar Station and they observed the general rules of the Post-Office Department. The Nazir of the District Court-House was the Officer-in-charge of the 'District Post', while the Police Writer at the police station served as District Post Master. There was a delivery peon for the postal sub-division of the District corresponding with the police limits of the station house. There were dak-runners between the Sadar Station and Station House in the interior. On demand by inhabitants, District Post-Offices were established in the larger towns and the interior of the District. The Deputy Commissioner was responsible for the efficiency of postal arrangements while the Police Officer performed the duties of Inspector of District Post Offices. In these initial stages of postal development, expenses were covered partly by the District Post cess which amounted to 8 annas per cent of the land revenue assessment and partly by income derived from bearing and stamped letters[1].

An early as 1862-63 a proposal was mooted out to bring the receipt and delivery of letters in the interior of the District under the

1. Report on the Administration of the Central Provinces, 1864-65, p. 38.

control of the Post Office Department. But a decision was taken to the contrary. The departmental supervision was unsatisfactory as the Post-Offices falling in the Sagar-Nerbudda territories were under the jurisdiction of the remote Post Master-General of the North West Provinces. During the year 1867-68 the management of District Postal lines and establishments was made over to the Chief Inspector who controlled Imperiol Postal Department in Central Provinces.

The Nagpur-Mirzapur Road *via* Jabalpur has played an important role in establishing postal link between far-flung parts of India. Prior to the opening of Railway, the mail was carried on mail carts between Jabalpur and Mirzapur for eight months of the year, while from Jabalpur to Nagpur couriers carried wallets on horse-backs. At the end of 1868 the establishments on this road were considerably enlarged so as to permit the transmission of the entire overland mails to and from eastern and northern India at the same time.

With the opening of Railway through the Narmada valley in 1870 the way in which the mails were carried underwent a great change. The mail-cart service and the bullock train (which was established as a cheaper means of conveyance for the heavier parcels) were abolished as their continuance was rendered unnecessary.

The table given below depicts the growth of Post and Telegraph offices, postal staff and radios in Jabalpur District during the year 1950-51 to 1960-61.

Serial No.	Year	Number of Post offices				No. of telegraph offices	Staff	Radio licences
		H. O.	S. O.	B.O.	Total			
1	1950-51	1	25	51	77	19	331	1677
2	1951-52	1	25	56	12	20	334	1726
3	1952-53	1	26	56	83	21	345	3342
4	1953-54	1	30	62	93	21	345	2342
5	1954-55	1	32	98	131	21	356	3888
6	1955-56	1	36	134	171	22	389	4176
7	1956-57	1	38	158	197	23	402	5258
8	1957-58	1	42	175	218	23	429	5714
9	1958-59	1	43	180	224	23	431	N.A.
10	1959-60	1	51	182	234	23	494	N.A.
11	1960-61	1	52	188	241	24	501	12026

Present Working and Set-up.—On 31st March, 1961, 241 Post Offices existed in the District. Out of these, one was Head Post Office located at Jabalpur, 52 were sub-offices and 188 were branch offices. In addition to these, there were 24 Telegraph offices. Both Postal and Savings Bank businesses are transacted at the Head Post Office as well as at all Sub-Offices in the District.

Telephones.—The District was linked with a regular telephonic system in the early years of 'thirties. Telephone system here is worked manually. Jabalpur is the headquarters of the Telephone Group Exchange with sub-exchanges at Gadarwara, Narsimhapur, Katni, Sagar, Damoh, Sihora, Piparia, Mandla and Seoni under its jurisdiction. The total number of working connections, up to end of September, 1962 was 1179. The gradual growth of the Jabalpur Telephone system is shown in the statement below:

Serial No.	Year	Total Capacity (lines)
(1)	(2)	(3)
1	1938-1944 ..	200
2	1945.. ..	250
3	1950 ..	350
4	1952 ..	400
5	1953.. ..	460
6	1954.. ..	600
7	1956.. ..	700
8	1957 ..	800
9	1959.. ..	940
10	1960.. ..	1200
11	1962.. ..	1400

There are 9 P. B. X. connections in Jabalpur city as follows:

1. Post and Telegraph Developmental Workshop—60 connections.
2. Telegraph Workshop—90 connections.
3. M. P. Electricity Board—20 connections.
4. Jabalpur Electric Supply Company—10 connections.
5. Defence Department 5 P.B.X.—220 connections.

Telephone Traffic.—The average daily outward trunk traffic is 460 while the average total daily traffic is 920 calls. The exchange is directly connected with Nagpur, Allahabad, Katni, Narsimhapur, Gadarwara, Bombay, Bhopal and Itarsi and calls for Indore and Gwalior are routed *via* Bhopal.

At present there are 17 local public call offices out of which 13 are combined Post and Telegraph offices and 4 are coin-boxes at Elgin Hospital, Victoria Hospital, Railway goods-shed and Posts and Telegraph Training Centre.

Future Schemes of Expansion.—Among the future schemes two are most important; one of them relates to the conversion of the present mannual system into an automatic one by 1965 and the other relates to the expansion of the present capacity by 1200 lines.

RADIO AND WIRELESS STATIONS

The Jabalpur station of All India Radio was inaugurated on the 8th November, 1964 and it was the 5th in the chain of stations that constituted All India Radio's net-work of broadcasting units in this State. At present the Jabalpur station has been started with 20 K. W. transmitter. It is only a relaying station and the evening programmes of Bhopal Radio Station are relayed from here. The commissioning of this auxilary station has further increased the coverage of Bhopal—Indore Station, enabling listeners even in remote corners of Madhya Pradesh to hear the programmes.

The transmission station is situated at a distance of about 2 miles on Jabalpur-Damoh Road.

ORGANISATIONS OF OWNERS AND EMPLOYEES

There are two organisations of employees of State-owned Transport Services. The Rashtriya Motor Karmachari Congress (affiliated to I. N. T. U. C.), was registered in 1956 and is recognized by State Road Transport undertaking. It has a membership of 250. The Madhya Pradesh Motor Kamgar Union, which has 1026 members was registered in 1958, though unrecognised. There is also a Truck Owners' Association known as "Jabalpur Region Truck Owners' Association, Jabalpur.". This association was registered in April 1963 and has 148 members.

In addition to the two unions in the field of Road Transport, there are unions of employees in the Railways and Posts and Telegraphs. There is a branch of the All India Railwaymen's Federation which has registered a large membership of the railway employees in this District. Similarly, there is a branch of the All India Postal Employees' Association at Jabalpur which has got a good membership.

CHAPTER VIII

MISCELLANEOUS OCCUPATIONS

No intensive survey of conditions in the miscellaneous occupations of Jabalpur District has been undertaken. Nor can Census data for 1951 and 1961 be easily compared on account of changes in classification and coverage of different occupations. Notwithstanding these limitations, some of the important and necessary occupations are described below to show broadly the conditions therein.

Public Administration

According to 1951 Census there were 14,217 employees of the Union Government, 4,956 of the State Government and 1,198 of the local Government Bodies in the District. These figures were exclusive of those already classified under other divisions and sub-divisions of occupations for census purposes. In 1961 there were 12,843 persons working in administrative departments and offices of the Central Government. Persons engaged in administrative departments and offices of quasi-Government organizations, municipalities, local boards, etc., numbered 901 and employees in administrative departments and offices of the State Government were 4,210. However, the 1961 figures are not exactly comparable because of conceptual changes in the definitions and economic classification. They are exclusive of Government, quasi-Government or Local Body activities other than administrative in such fields as transport, communication, information, broadcasting and education, scientific services, health, industries, production, construction, marketing and operation of financial institutions, classified in the appropriate industry groups. Another classification of 1961 data, however, shows that there were 11 532 Administrative and Executive Officials of the Central Government, 247 State Government Executive officials and 94 Local Bodies Executives in that year. These figures are exclusive of the clerical and other related workers under different Government services. Clerical and related workers (not necessarily in Government and Local Bodies employment) numbered 15,373. Besides these, there were 3,092 unskilled office workers in the District in 1961.

Amongst the educated persons, there is a growing tendency to join Government services. The Director of Employment Exchanges observed in this connection that at the Employment Exchange in the District "raw matriculates fresh from school flocked (at the Exchanges).................. Keenness was marked among them for clerical jobs in the Government departments and other establishments of repute.................. cushy jobs and quick work were still their expectations." It is not only the easy going nature of work but also the security offered by Government services and some sense of prestige which still goes with it that attract the educated youngmen to positions under Government.

Government servants as well as the employees of Local Bodies get dearness allowance, provident fund, pension and gratuity benefits besides their pay. Medical facilities for treatment of one's-self and members of one's family through the system of reimbursement of medical expenses are also given to permanent as well as temporary Government servants. Housing accommodation is also provided to the Government servants if the nature of duty of the person requires his presence on the place of work at all hours. In Jabalpur there is no general scheme of construction of residential quarters for all Government employees but permanent Government servants are given loans for construction of houses. Because of the reorganization of the State and the shifting of some of the State Government establishments to Jabalpur, the general increase in population and the setting up of new industries, etc., the problem of residential accommodation has become serious of late and the low-paid employees are being put to much inconvenience.

The non-gazetted State Government employees have got their organization, *viz*, Ministerial Services Association, at the District level, through which grievances of the employees are placed before the Government for redressal. The organization is affiliated to the M. P. Ministerial Services Association, a parent body for whole of the State. Gazetted Government servants are not so organized in any form. The Jabalpur Corporation employees also have their Union in the Jabalpur Corporation Karmachari Sangh, registered in the year 1957. It has a membership of 1,004. There is also the Jabalpur Nagar Nigam Mazdoor Sangh, registered in the year 1959, with a membership of 124.

The position of the Government servants in the society is not so high, as it was under the British rule. Yet employment under Government still gives these employees some status in society, which

differs according to the rank and the nature of work that the person is doing. Such departmental workers who directly deal with public, happen to be in a favourable position socially.

Education

Amongst different occupations a place of prime importance goes to the profession of teachers. Upon them lies the responsibility not only of educating but also of moulding the character of the younger generation so as to make its members responsible citizens of a free nation. After Independence great stress has been laid on educating the masses and to achieve this end, free and compulsory primary education is being introduced. Coupled with this, the number of school-going children is also increasing because of the general increase in population of the District. Consequently, the number of schools, colleges, teachers, professors and students has increased considerably in the District. The pattern of old-time academic instructions is gradually being changed to technical education, in order to fulfil the need for technical man-power.

According to 1951 Census the percentage of literacy in the District was 19·3 while in 1961, i.e., during 10 year's period, it had increased to 28.6. An increase in the number of persons entering the teaching profession can be seen from the fact that in the year 1951-52 there were 1,852 teachers in institutions other than Universities and Colleges. According to the Census of 1961 this number had increased to 5,269. This figure includes primary, middle, secondary, nursery and kindergarten, and other school teachers The increase in the number can roughly be said to be five-fold. Teachers in institutions other than secondary and primary schools numbered 154 in 1951, as against this in 1961 the number of teachers in University and Colleges, etc., was 505.

Jabalpur is the seat of Jabalpur University and there are about 19 colleges in the District, most of them located at Jabalpur proper, imparting instructions in the faculties of Arts, Commerce, Science, Medicine, Law, etc. There are three Teachers' Training Colleges, one of which is Government-aided while the other two are Government Colleges. There are also Government Agricultural and Veterinary Colleges, Polytechnic institutions, besides an Engineering College and a Medical College.

The general increase in population, an increased keenness among all classes in the society to receive education, the provision of free education at the primary stage and several concessions to

students from the lower strata of society have led to a phenomenal increase in the student population giving rise to the problem of providing adequate number of qualified teachers at all stages. Government is trying to solve this problem by creating facilities for training teachers at all levels, and also by making the occupation economically attractive. Teachers as a class in the Government service were comparatively in a better position economically than those in the employ of private and Local Bodies. However, this occupation could not attract the best talent in the State because of the comparatively poor remuneration and prospects. One of the causes of the deteriorating standards of our education is said to be the depressing economic condition of the teachers who cannot devote themselves whole-heartedly to their profession because of low scales of pay and insecurity of service, etc., in so far as private institutions are concerned. To remedy this the State Government has recently revised the pay-scales and dearness allowance of all categories of teachers alongwith those of other Government servants. The revised scales of pay have been made uniformly applicable to all teachers in Government schools, institutions run by Local Bodies and private bodies.

The revised scales of pay of teachers in broad categories are as under.

Post (1)	Revised Scale of Pay (2)
(1) Middle passed untrained teacher.	.. Rs. 85—2½—100—EB—4—140.
(2) Middle passed trained teacher or Matriculate untrained teacher.	.. Rs. 90—2½—100—EB—4—140—EB—5—170.
(3) Matriculate trained teacher.	.. Rs. 90—2½—100—EB—4—140—EB—5—170.
CLASS II	
(1) Assistant Professor	.. Rs. 360—15—405—20—425—25—550—550—EB—25—700.
(2) Lecturers	.. Rs. 275—275—300—15—405—EB—20—425—25—575.

The revised scales are exclusive of dearness allowance and are likely to relieve economic distress among the old as well as fresh entrants in the occupation in these days of rising cost of living.

The teachers, especially the low-paid primary teachers are organized into two trade unions in the District, one of which is an organization of the Local Body employees of Jabalpur proper, known as Rashtriya Nagar Nigam Prathmik Shikshak Sangh. It was registered in the year 1959 and has a membership of 227. The other union was registered in the year 1960 and is known as M. P. Prathmik Shikshak Sangh.

Engineers, Architects, Surveyors, etc.

In this age of science and technology persons with technical and scientific training have a vital role to play in the society. Realising this the Central as well as the State Governments are boosting up programmes of technical training by starting Polytechnic Institutions, craftsman training centres, Engineering Colleges, etc. Jabalpur District as already stated above, has practically all these training institutions and colleges Inspite of this, analysing the trends in registration at the Employment Exchanges in the District the Director of Employment Exchanges observed—"Generally, Ayyahs, Midwives, Sanitary Inspectors, Stenographers, first class Boiler Attendants, Accountants, Nurses, and high class technicians were scarce at the Exchanges." This shows that the demand for technically trained personnel is greater than supply at the existing level of economic development. The 1961 Census had recorded a total number of 681 architects, engineers and surveyors in the District. The number of draftsmen, laboratory assistants, science and engineering technicians was about 469. Chemists, physicists, geologists and other physical scientists numbered 17, biologists, verterinarians, and agro-economists, etc, 61. This gives a total of 1,258 persons in the District with a population of 12,73,825.

Journalism

Our long-drawn struggle for Independence and the gradual spread of literacy amongst the masses have created in the educated people an urge to know not only about themselves but also about others. This has helped the growth of journalism and has brought into existence a class of journalists and other related workers. In this respect Jabalpur is well ahead of most districts in Madhya Pradesh. The profession, however, has not developed fully even now and it might require a considerable change in the literacy map of the District to create more job opportunities for the authors and journalists. In 1951 the District had 21 authors, editors and journalists. The 1961 Census lists only 15 authors, eight editors, journalists and related workers and other eight as translators, interpreters and language specialists, a total of 31 persons in the District. The inherent risks in the occupation and the uncertainty of income are the main reasons of a small number of workers in this field.

Fine Arts

There were 36 painters, decorators and commercial artists, sculptors and modellers. Actors and related workers numbered 66, musicians and related workers 281, dancers and related workers 49, and others 23. The total number of persons engaged in fine arts was thus 455 according to 1961 Census.

Medical and Public Health

Next to the teaching profession in the context of national importance is the medical profession. It is a well-known fact that even 15 year after achieving Independence the nation is lacking in trained physicians to serve the millions in the rural areas of the Country. There is a general tendency among the medical practitioners to concentrate in urban areas for their practice. To meet the dearth of trained physicians Government is opening medical colleges and giving recognition to the practitioners in Ayurvedic and Unani systems.

According to 1951 Census there were 132 registered medical practitioners in the District. Besides these there were 123 *Vaidyas*, Hakims and other persons practising medicine. There were 36 midwives, 198 compounders and only 68 nurses. The population of the District in 1951 was 10,45,596. Taking the registered and other practitioners together the proportion was 4,100 persons per practitioner. As against this according to 1961 Census there were 315 surgeons and physicians in Allopathic medicians, 195 Ayurvedic, 57 Homoeopathic and 59 others. The District population had increased to 12,73,825. Taking all these practitioners together we have one medical practitioner for every 2,034 persons. Besides the physicians, nurses, pharmacists and other medical and health technicians in 1961 numbered 935. The position appears to be comparatively happy in 1961, but it still falls far short of medical and health requirements of the population.

In the social set-up persons in this occupation enjoy certain status. But here also, there is a tendency to seek employment in Government hospitals and dispensaries in preference to private practice. Most private medical practitioners are generally found to bemoan the lack of patients in their dispensaries as mostly people are poor and are attracted to Government hospitals for free medical treatment. The facilities of reimbursement of medicine bills for Government servants wean away the members of this class from private practitioners Even so, the private medical practitioners are not found willing to establish in rural areas. The lure of urban life still exercises its pull.

The low-paid employees of the Government hospital at Jabalpur have their trade union known as Asptal Laghu Wetan Bhogi Karmachari Sangh with a membership of 103 persons.

Legal Profession

According to 1951 Census, the number of lawyers of all kinds, including kazis, law-agents and *mukhtiars* in the District was 98 only. As against this the present strength of the District Bar Association of Jabalpur is 175. There are about 23 active lawyers at different tahsil places in the District. On account of the reorganisation of the State the seat of High Court was shifted to Jabalpur. The strength of the High Court Bar is 60. According to 1961 Census the total number of legal practitioners and others in the occupation is 339. This incrase in the number of persons in the occupation, though not considerable can be attributed to the shifting of High Court to Jabalpur as also the increasing number of law graduates turned out every year by the universities.

Persons in the legal profession, especially the new entrans, finding it difficult to get sufficient clientele are generally found to be at the helm of affairs in labour unions, social welfare organisations, committees and clubs. They also work as a liaison between the public and Government establishments having direct dealings with the public. Great disparities of income are seen in this profession, the income depending on the professional skill of the practitioner. The crowding in the profession, however, gives the impression that the old-time prestige of the profession is vanishing.

Commerce and Trade

Jabalpur is one of the industrially advanced districts of the State. The existence of such large-scale industries like cement, potteries, textiles, etc., at Jabalpur and its favourable location on rail routes and roads connecting it with other parts of the State and neighbouring States have made it a great trading and commercial centre.

Some idea of the whole-sale and retail trade activities in the District can be had from the figures of 1951 and 1961 Censuses, though no clear-cut comparison or categorical conclusion are possible. In the year 1951 18,890 self-supporting persons were engaged in retail trade of all types including hawkers and street vendors, dealers in grain, foods-stuffs, textiles, leather goods, etc., and 1,495 self-supporting persons were in whole-sale trade. In addition, whole-sale and retail trade offered secondary means of livelihood to approximately 7,100 earning dependants. As against this in 1961 the number of workers in retail trade was 22,773 and in whole-sale trade 2,337. The workers in shops and establishments at Jabalpur

are organised in Jabalpur Shop Assistants Union registered in the year 1948 which has a membership of 126.

Kirana and sweetmeat establishments are engaging quite a large number of persons. A majority of these establishments are managed by the owners themselves and the number engaged on wages is small. The number of such shops and establishments in the year 1962 registered under the Shops and Establishment Act at Jabalpur and Katni (the two places in the District to which the Act is applicable) was 1,005, which among them employed 238 persons. Servants are employed only in large establishments and are paid wages on monthly basis. Some shops also employ servants on a part-time basis. The economic condition of the persons in these occupations is good only where the investments in the business are substantial. As the persons in these occupations especially in *kirana* business deal in the necessities of life chances of liquidation of the business are few. Certain communities in the societity like Marwaris, Sindhis, and Jains are mostly found in this occupation from olden times. There is no significant encroachment in this sphere even now by other communities in the society.

Hotels and Restaurants

Of late hotel-goers and hotels are increasing in number. With the economic development and industrialisation the occupation of running hotels and restaurants is also likely to develop. Even in rural areas small shops providing light refreshments, tea, etc., are coming up near motor-stands and in the market places. Hotels, however, are mainly a feature of urban life. Be they tin-shacks or luxurious hotels it is a busines which cannot be run without the help of servants With a few exceptions, hotels and restaurants are found to be profitable investments. As an increasing number of people go to hotels out of necessity, habit or fashion, the persons in this occupation are fiinding it profitable to invest, and imporve their old establishments or start new ones. Employment opportunities in this occupation are also, therefore, increasing. Wage rates as well as the rates charged for services to the customers have increased over a period of years. Wages are mostly paid on monthly basis. There is no uniformity in the payment of wages or service charges amongst the establishments. Wages are paid in cash as well as in kind, the latter being in the form of providing meals or snacks to the servant. In the year 1961 the number of persons engaged in services rendered by hotels, boarding-houses, eating-houses, restaurants and similar other organizations providing lodging and boarding facilities was 914.

Transport

As transport by road develops, the number of vehicles plying on the road as well as those engaged in the occupation of driving and servicing these vehicles also increases. Taking the figures of 1951 Census, the owners, managers and employees as well as other individuals engaged in road transport of all kinds, numbered 5,546. In the year 1961, however, 6,126 workers were engaged in road transport.

In order to prevent exploitation of workers in transport industry, Government have fixed minimum wages under the Minimum Wages Act, 1948. The fixation of minimum wages for different categories of workers in transport industry has significantly lessened the disparities in pay, dearness and other allowances of drivers, conductors, mechanics, cleaners, and unskilled workers. The salaries of drivers prior to the fixation of minimum wages ranged between Rs. 40 p m. and Rs 150 p m., conductors were paid Rs. 25 p.m. to Rs. 75 p.m., cleaners were paid Rs. 22 p.m. to Rs. 50 p.m., and mechanics from Rs. 75 p.m. to Rs. 125 p.m. Minimum wages per month as in operation from 1st January, 1959 are. for drivers Rs. 90, for conductors Rs. 80, for mechanics Rs. 100, for cleaners Rs. 60 and for unskilled workers Rs. 50 p.m. Besides these, workers in Government transport establishments get other service benefits also. With a view to improving their bargaining power with the employers, workers everywhere, Government and others, are organized in trade unions. There are two Motor Workers Unions in the District one of which registered in the year 1956 is known as Rastriya Motor Karmachari Congress with a membership of 250 and the other is the Madhya Pradesh Motor Kamgar Union registered in the year 1958, with a membership of 1,026. There is also a Rickshaw Drivers Union registered as early as 1948.

Domestic Services

Traditionally the upper classes in India have employed domestic servants for a variety of purposes. A change in the political and economic environment has, however, caused a near revolution in the attitudes of people, specially in the urban areas. People avoid seeking employment as domestic servants and prefer to set-up themselves as independent workers. The changing economic conditions have made it impossible for most people, except those belonging to the richest groups, to employ full-time servants, e.g.,

maid-servants, watchmen, etc., and many who employed full-time servants earlier have to content themselves with part-time assistance. Barbers and laundrymen prefer to set-up their shops where the customers are served rather than serve persons at their houses. Even in villages the old occupational traditions of these people are found to have been changing, though the change is prominently seen in urban areas.

The meagreness and incomparability of data, prevents drawing of any conclusion in this respect. According to 1951 Census self-supporting persons engaged in domestic services of all kinds including private motor drivers and cleaners, cooks, gardeners, and other domestic servants numbered 3,393 in Jabalpur District. In 1961 the number of house-keepers, cooks, maids and related workers, *viz.*, bearers, waiters, ayahs, etc., was 3,671. The number of barbers, hair-dressers, etc., was 1,586 in 1951, while in 1961 the number was 2,044, which included barbers, hairdressers, beauticians and related workers. In urban areas barbers with some means are investing their resources in starting hair-cutting saloons and a majority of the existing saloons are doing a thriving business. Work in most of the saloons is carried on by the owners themselves without any assistance. In a few cases members of family like brothers are taken as helpers. Even where outsiders are employed they are not paid definite monthly wages but are paid daily wages varying from Re. 1 to Rs. 3. Some of these shops are run on partnership basis, the total earnings and expenses being divided among the partners in fixed percentages. The rates charged to the customers currently show an increase over those in the nineteenfifties. The rates, however, differ, being generally higher in well-furnished saloons in good locality. Rent paid for accommodation by saloon owners also varies considerably from Rs. 10 to Rs. 100 p.m. The barbers had their trade Union registered under the Trade Unions Act in the year 1959. The Union was named as Civilian Barber Workers Union. Its registration was subsequently cancelled.

Persons engaged in laundry services, washing and cleaning numbered 977 in the District in 1951. In 1961 the number of laundrymen, washermen and dhobis was 1,560, and those of drycleaners and pressers was 33. This occupation is now not restricted to the persons belonging to the dhobi caste. Persons belonging to other castes are also entering this occupation, with the advent of dry-cleaning machine for woollen and silk garments. Employment to outsiders is limited in this occupation, as only those engaged in

dry-cleaning business and are not washermen by caste employ outsiders. This being so roughly about 85 per cent of the laundries happen to be managed by the owners themselves with the help of the members in their families. Rates for washing and ironing garments of cotton, woollen and silk, have registered an increase. Ordinary washing and ironing charges for 100 garments, small and big, vary from Rs. 8 to Rs. 10. Wages of the workers in laundries have also increased. Currently wages are usually paid on monthly basis.

Tailoring

The economic condition of persons in this occupation is generally satisfactory. About 50 per cent of those in this occupation are found to be carrying on work by themselves. Other 50 per cent employing *karigars* (workmen) are paid on piece-rate basis, generally 50 per cent of the stitching charges of the garment. Stitching charges in all the establishments have registered a rise during the last ten years. However, the rates charged differ from shop to shop. There is a sort of specialization found in this occupation in as much as some are found to be stitching garments for gents only and some others for ladies and children. Employment opportunities in this occupation appear to have been increasing as the tailors, who were previously doing the work by themselves, are finding it necessary to employ more *karigars* in their shops. In the year 1961 workers in household and non-household industry of making textile garments including raincoats and headgears, numbered about 3,217.

A survey was conducted by the students of the G. S. College of Commerce, Jabalpur to enquire into the general economic conditions of domestic and personal servants in Jabalpur city. This included tailors, barbers, washermen, household servants, gardeners and watch and ward. The survey revealed that the tailors as a class have the highest monthly per capita income and expenditure, while gardeners as a class have the lowest per capita income and expenditure. Out of the 11 cases of tailors investigated six cases reported having a saving and three having deficits. Saving per family also was the highest in case of tailors. Lowest savings per family were shown in case of watch and ward, *viz.*, Rs. 7·3 per month. Economic conditions of barbers and washermen did not differ significantly. Monthly per capita income of barbers was Rs. 34.3 as against expenditure of Rs. 23.2. Income and expenditure figures in case of washermen were Rs. 25.7 and Rs. 22 per capita. Domestic servants come next in respect of earnings and expenditure.

Cycle Repairing

The manufacture of bicycles in the Country on a large-scale and the consequent lowering of their prices have made this means of transport very popular among the masses in recent years. A number of cycle-repairing establishments have therefore, been started everywhere and quite a large number of persons have taken to cycle-repairing as their occupation. About 60 per cent of the owners of cycle-repairing shops are employing workers. Over a period of years this occupation has been providing employment opportunities to an increasing number of persons. The workers are employed on monthly as well as daily wages. Some of the workers also work on partnership basis. Young male members in the family of the owners are helping in running the shops. Wages vary generally from Rs. 30 per month to Rs. 90 per month. Boy-servants are paid even less than Rs. 30. Daily rates of wages also range from Re. 1 to Re. 3 and Rs. 4 per day depending on the skill of the worker. With the introduction of cycle rickshaws, some of the cycle repairing shop owners are giving rickshaws on hire to the rickshaw drivers. Hire charges of a rickshaw for a day are Rs. 1.50 per day. In 1961 approximately 1,400 persons were engaged in the household and non-household industry of cycle-repairing in the District.

Pan-Bidi Shop

This is a thriving occupation, mostly in urban centres. A majority of these shops is prospering. The location of the shop considerably influences the business in this occupation. Shops which are situated near cinema-houses have a daily turnover varying from Rs. 80 to Rs. 100. Some of them employ a *munim* for keeping accounts. The shops are generally run by the owners themselves. Servants where employed are paid on a monthly or daily-wage basis, the monthly wages ranging from Rs. 30 to Rs. 50 per month. The rates charged to the customers are generally the same in all shops. Where economic conditions of the shop owners are found to be bad they are so, due to the physical disabilities of the owners or due to old age.

CHAPTER IX

ECONOMIC TRENDS

Pattern of Livelihood

The development of industries has considerably influenced the pattern of livelihood in Jabalpur District. Industrial employment has increased. Trade and commerce have expanded As a result, the excessive dependence on agriculture has been toned down. In 1951 agriculture was the main source of livelihood to 5,98,931 persons or 57.2 per cent of a total population of 10,45,596. The remaining 42.8 per cent of the population derived its principal means of livelihood from production other than cultivation, commerce, transport, other services and miscellaneous sources.

In the year 1901, the population of the District was 6,79,859, out of which 4,23,396 persons or about 62.2 per cent were dependent for livelihood on pasture and agriculture. Taking 1951 figures in comparison, it is seen that there is a shift from agriculture to other sources of livelihood during a period of 50 years. The decline in the percentage of rural population, which is mainly agricultural, from 83.8 per cent in 1901 to 71.4 per cent in 1951 indicates the rising importance of other sources of livelihood.

The occupational break-up of the population both urban and rural in 1951 is shown in the table below.

Class No.	Name of Livelihood Class	Rural	Urban	Total of Rural and Urban	Percentage of the total District population
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)
	Agricultural				
I.	Cultivators of land and their dependents.	4,22,427	4,486	4,26,913	40.8
II.	Cultivators of land wholly or mainly owned and their dependents.	17,944	1,263	19,207	1.8
III.	Cultivating labourers and their dependents,	1,45,731	1,025	1,47,756	14.1

(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)
VI.	Non-cultivating owners of land, agricultural rent receivers and their dependents.	3,569	1,486	5,055	0.5
	Total Agricultural	5,90,671	8,260	5,98,931	57.2
	Non-Agricultural				
V.	Production other than cultivation	81,720	94,032	1,75,752	16.8
VI.	Commerce ..	24,034	56,647	80,681	7.8
VII.	Transport	8.793	28,655	37,448	3.6
VIII.	Other services and .. miscellaneous sources.	41,567	1,11,217	1,52,784	14.6
	Total Non-Agricultural	1,56,114	2,90,551	4,46,665	42.8

It is clear that the cultivators of land and their dependents is the numerically largest class among the agricultural classes, next numerically important being cultivating labourers and their dependents. Quite a large section of the rural non-agricultural population depends for its livelihood on production other than cultivation. Explaining this, it has been stated in the Census Report 1951 that the "high percentage in livelihood class V" 10 per cent "in the rural areas of Jabalpur district is due to different industries to be found in the interior. The brass, copper and bell metal workers of the district have been known for a very long time. Although these industries are not very prosperous they engage a fair number of people. Mining and quarrying of lime-stone, clay, soap-stone, bauxite, red and yellow ochre and chalk are also important industries of the Jabalpur district which absorb a large number of people .... Tobacco, vegetables, singara and sugarcane plantations in the Jabalpur district also contribute to the increase in the proportion of people of Livelihood Class V, as also the popular cottage 'bidi' industry."

In 1951 Census all self-supporting persons and earning dependents, excluding those belonging to Class IV rent receivers, etc., in the agricultural class and persons subsisting on non-productive non-agricultural activity, *e.g.*, pensioners, etc., were taken as constituting

the economically active population. Non-earning dependents together with agricultural Class IV and persons subsisting on non-productive non-agricultural activities formed the economically inactive class. The following table shows the relative sizes of the economically active and the economically inactive population in Jabalpur District in 1951.

	Agricultural		Non-Agriculrural	
	Rural	Urban	Rural	Urban
(A) Economically active population.	3,06,433	2,561	75,667	1,05,531
(B) Economically inactive population.	2,84,238	5,699	80,447	1,85,020
Ratio of (A) to (B)	1 :0.93	1 :2.23	1: 1.06	1 :1.75

Every economically active person of the agricultural class has to support one inactive person in the rural area and more than two in the urban area. The high proportion of inactive persons in the urban area is explained by the fact that in many cases the members of family of an agriculturist cannot participate in work on account of the distance of the fields from residential areas and social surroundings. The 1951 Census has revealed that in the urban areas, 80.7 per cent of the females belonging to the agricultural classes are inactive while this percentage for the rural area is only 56.4. The proportion of the inactive to economically active persons in urban areas is slightly lower in non-agricultural classes as against agricultural classes, the figures being 1.75 for the former and 2 23 for the latter. In the rural areas, the proportion of inactive population is lower in agricultural classes and higher in non-agricultural classes mainly because agricultural occupations offer greater scope for employment of women and children. In 1961 Census certain classificatory changes were made. Notwithstanding these changes, the Census data of 1951 and 1961 can be compared if the class of "workers" introduced in 1961 is equated with economically active population as defined earlier.[1] On this basis the total number of such "workers" in 1951 and 1961 works out to 4,90,192 and 5,80,999, respectively. Workers in agriculture at these two Censuses were 59.40 and 59.74 per cent, respectively of the total number of "workers." Percentage of "workers" in the livelihood class production other than agriculture, *i.e.*, Industry of 1951 was

1. The working force in different industrial categories has been calculated in the manner indicated in Appendix I, Census of India, Paper No. 2 of 1962.

16.54. The corresponding figure for 1961 was 18.19 per cent. It is obvious that the industrial expansion in the District has offered the workers a wider field for emplpoyment. As a result, larger percentage of the working population was engaged in industries in 1961 than in 1951. The percentage of workers in transport and communication has also increased slightly from 3.19 per cent in 1951 to 3.33 per cent in 1961. Trade and commerce, however, claimed 4.51 per cent of the total number of workers in 1961, the figure for 1951 being 6.15 per cent. Other services and miscellaneous sources (inclusive of construction and utilities) have also shown a slight decrease from 14.70 per cent 1951 to 14.21 per cent in 1961.

This comparison of 1951 and 1961 data reveals that the increasing population of the District has not led to a proportionately greater burden on agriculture. The other sectors of the economy have simultaneously expanded to ensure an even distribution of the pressure of growing population. The growth of industry provided the means of livelihood to a slightly higher percentage of the total number of workers in the District in 1961 but it has not resulted in any reduction in the percentage of workers employed in agricultural occupations during the period 1951-61.

GENERAL LEVEL OF PRICES

Jabalpur District falls in the wheat zone of the State and wheat is the staple food crop of the District. Besides wheat, jowar, rice, linseed and gram are some other important crops. Changes in the prices of these crops affect significantly the economic life in the District.

In the last decade of the 19th Century, the prices of all foodgrains were highest in the year 1897, an year of famine throughout the State. The situation eased considerably the next year. Wheat prices fell further and was sold at 14.2 seers a rupee in 1899, the ruling rate in 1897 having been 9.5 seers a rupee. This fall in the price of wheat can be attributed to the increase in the area under wheat from 209.5 thousand acres in 1896-97 to 325.1 thousand acres in 1898-99. The prices of jowar, rice, linseed and gram fell in 1898 to rise slightly in the following year.

In the year 1900, there was a general increase in the prices of all food-grains in the District. This general rise in prices occurred as the area under wheat, rice and gram fell during the year 1900 because of the scarcity of water. A continuous fall in the prices of food-grains in the District began in 1900 and continued till

1904, during which year prices of all crops were low. Wheat was 15.3 seers, jowar 26.0 seers, rice 13.0 seers, linseed 11.7 seers and gram 22.5 seers a rupee. This fall in prices was reported to be "universal .... as a consequence of good harvest." Thereafter prices began to rise again with exceptions in the cases of certain crops from year to year till 1908 when there was again a general rise in the prices of all food-grains, which was attributed to the drought of 1907. It was reported that "prices of foodgrains, which were already high, rose higher during 1908."

In the year preceding the First World War i.e., in 1913, the price of wheat was 11 seers a rupee, jowar 12 seers, rice 9 seers, linseed 7.5 seers and gram 12.50 seers a rupee. In the year 1914 there was rise in the price of only two food-grains, *viz.*, wheat and gram. The price of rice was constant and jowar and linseed prices fell. These changes in the prices of food-grains were not brought about by the declaration of War, but were due to the shrinkage in the *rabi* sown area on account of early cessation of monsoon. In Jabalpur Division shrinkage in the area sown was reported to be 11 per cent. The area under wheat and wheat-gram in the Central Provinces fell by eight per cent. All through the War years, there was no general trend of rising prices of all food-grains. There was a mixed trend of rise and fall in the prices of different food-grains from year to year. Prices, however, were definitely higher in the years 1918 and 1919, as compared to all previous War years. The year 1918 was one of an influenza epidemic in the District and the rise in prices during the years 1918 and 1919 might be due to the scarcity conditions. In the year 1920-21 the prices rose again due to the failure of crops. The price situation eased in the year 1921-22 because a good harvest started the process of recovery. The price of wheat fell to 16.75 seers a rupee in 1921-22 as compared with 5.50 seers a rupee in 1920-21. The fall in prices was general in case of all the important food-grains in the District though the fall was more pronounced in case of wheat than any other food-crop. The prices of food-grains ruled at a comparatively higher level during the succeeding years till 1930.

The year 1930 was the beginning of a long series of years of depressed prices. In that year there was a steep fall in the prices of jowar and wheat in the District as compared to other food-grains, jowar sold at 28 seers a rupee an all-time low since 1891. The price of wheat was 10.5 seers a rupee. Wheat prices fell during 1930 especially due to an increase in the area under wheat. This increase was stated to be "due to favourable conditions at sowing and to the substitution of wheat and wheat-gram for cotton", which was said

to be "marked in the Jabalpur division where the *rabi* area was reported to be gradually regaining lost ground." The general low level of prices continued, till the advent of the Second World War.

In the year 1939-40 the whole-sale harvest prices of important food-grains in the District were Rs. 3.31 paise per maund of wheat; Rs. 3.75 paise per maund of rice; Rs 3.31 paise and Rs. 5.50 paise per maund for gram and linseed, respectively. The history of prices during succeeding War years is one of controlled prices and supplies through rationing, etc., necessitated by war-time conditions. In 1940-41 there was an increased incidence of insect pests, frost and rust which reduced the outturn of *rabi* crops much below normal in the District. The price of wheat increased to Rs. 4 per maund. Rice was Rs. 5 per maund. There was however, a slight fall in the prices of linseed and gram over the previous year. At this time, the Government was specially concerned about a rise in the price of rice rather than wheat, though the production of wheat which was 63.2 thousand tons in 1939-40 fell to 34.0 thousand tons in 1940-41 in the District due to unfavourable weather conditions. In the year 1941-42, there was further deterioration in the *rabi* crop condition for want of winter showers and later due to light to moderate showers accompanied by light hail. The production of wheat in the District in the year 1941-42 was reduced to 16.1 thousand tons. The whole-sale harvest price of wheat increased from Rs. 4 per maund in the previous year to Rs 5.94 paise in 1941-42. The price of rice increased to Rs 6.37 paise. There was also a considerable rise in the prices of linseed, gram and jowar in the District. The Deputy Commissioner in the District was issued instructions to fix maximum prices for wheat in the market of the District. The maximum price was to be fixed on the basis of parity with Hapur. The whole-sale parity price of wheat at Jabalpur was fixed at Rs. 5.91 paise per maund, while the retail price was fixed at Rs. 6.22 paise. In the year 1942-43 the out-turn of different crops was generally on a higher level in the District compared to the previous year. The production of wheat rose from 16.1 thousand tons in 1941-42 to 44.4 thousand tons in 1942-43. Production of rice increased to 54.3 thousand tons in 1942-43 from 18 thousand tons in the previous year. Production of linseed also increased in the District from 1.1 thousand tons in 1941-42 to 4.5 thousand tons in 1942-43. Jowar increased from 5.7 thousand tons in 1941-42 to 8.9 thousand tons in 1942-43. But inspite of this there was a steep rise in the prices of food-crops in 1942-43. Whole-sale harvest price of wheat and rice increased from Rs. 5.94 paise to Rs. 11 per maund and from Rs. 6.3 paise to Rs. 12.31 paise, respectively. Linseed price was Rs. 10 per maund in

the year 1942-43 as against Rs. 6.12 paise in the previous year, jowar price had increased from Rs. 3·31 paise in 1941-42 to Rs. 6.69 paise in 1942-43. The price of gram went up to Rs. 11 per maund from Rs. 5 per maund in 1941-42. This price situation was largely attributed to the "very natural tendency towards hoarding". For effective control over prices Government took action early in 1943 to secure as large a measure of control as possible over supplies of food-grains and their distribution. Official procurement of rice, jowar and wheat started. In the year 1943-44 there was a further rise in wheat price over previous year, from Rs. 11 per maund to Rs. 14.56 paise per maund. There was a slight fall in the price of rice and linseed and slight rise in the price of gram. In 1944-45 considerable increase in the production of wheat and gram was achieved. The price of wheat fell to Rs 9.12 paise per maund and gram sold at Rs. 8 per maund compared with Rs. 11.43 paise in 1943-44. The production of linseed was less and it recorded a slight rise in price. In case of rice, however, there was a fall in production and the price also fell from Rs. 12.12 paise to Rs. 9.69 paise per maund. This low price may be attributed to control and distributive measures. The prices of food-grains in the year 1945-46 and in 1946-47 remained more or less unchanged. This comparative stability in prices can be attributed to the efficiency in the procurement, distribution and price control machinery of the Government. At the close of the Second World War in 1946-47 the whole-sale harvest prices were—wheat Rs 10.50 paise, rice Rs. 9.31 paise, jowar Rs. 7, gram Rs. 10.25 paise and linseed Rs. 16 per maund.

The difficult food situation created by the Second World War necessitated the continuance of war-time control policy even after the cessation of hostilities. But with the advent of popular administration in the State there was a move towards liberalization of the scheme of compulsory levy and monopoly procurement and distribution. As a step further in pursuance of this policy, towards the end of 1947 the whole qeustion of control was examined by the Government of India and it was found inevitable that a progressive relaxation of food-grains control was in the larger interest of the Country. The Government of India, therefore, decided on a policy of gradual decontrol and in pursuance of this, the State Government removed all bans on the inter-district movement of food-grains and abandoned the rigid system of monopoly procurement. All rationing and provisioning schemes were cancelled, though a certain number of fair price shops were continued in the rationed areas of Jabalpur. Prices of all food-grains shot up steeply from the level of

1946-47 in the subsequent years, as can be seen from the following whole-sale prices of important crops in the District.—

(In Rs. per maund)

Years (1)	Wheat (2)	Rice (3)	Gram (4)	Linseed (5)	Jowar (6)
1916-47	10.50	9.37	10.25	16.00	7.00
1947-48 . ..	22.87	12.56	11.06	16.94	9 62
1948-49	18.81	13.31	11.06	18.31	8.62
1949-50 .. .	16.00	14.56	10.00	24.62	19.62
1950-51	17.50	24.31	19.44	31.12	19.44

The year 1950-51 was a turning point in the economic history of the Country as the year 1947-48 was one in its political history. In the year 1950-51 the Country embarked on the policy of planned economic development and in the First Five Year Plan stress was laid on the food self-sufficinecy. The adoption of Grow More Food Scheme in the State yielded results. The following two Tables give the position of whole-sale prices and production of important food-grains and linseed in the District during the First Five Year Plan period, i.e., 1951-52 to 1955-56.

Average Farm Harvest Prices

(In Rs. per maund)

Years (1)	Wheat (2)	Rice (3)	Jowar (4)	Gram (5)	Linseed (6)
1951-52 . .	16 00	17.50	..	14.56	..
1952-53	16 62	15.94	10.00	15.95	17.06
1953-54 . ..	16.00	14.31	8.00	11.44	16.69
1954-55	12.57	16.06	5.12	7.75	11.62
1955-56	13.94	14.56	5.37	11.06	..

Out-turn of crops

(In'000 tons)

Years (1)	Wheat (2)	Rice (3)	Jowar (4)	Gram (5)	Linseed (6)
1951-52	56.1	45.1	5.1	42.1	1.8
1952-53	84.7	45.1	8.0	40.2	2.1
1953-54	80.2	46.6	10.7	32.1	2.5
1954-55	127.3	46.6	9 9	61.5	2.9
1955-56	90.5	50.9	6.2	59.0	3.4

From these Tables it is seen that by the end of the First Five Year Plan, there was a general improvement in the production of food-grains and consequent lowering of prices.

The prices of the above food-grains and linseed during the Second Plan period are given below.—

(In Rs. per maund)

Years (1)	Wheat (2)	Rice (3)	Jowar (4)	Gram (5)	Linseed (6)
1956-57	16.44	15.00	..	11.87	15.75
1957-58	14.47	22.00	..	9.71	..
1958-59 . ..	18.97	19.65	10.00	18.13	18.84
1959-60	13.34	18.50	14.36	11.61	16.83
1960-61	12.56	20.00	11.75	13.05	17.78

Compared to the year 1955-56 the general prices of all food-grains during the Second Plan Period, remained at a higher level in the District. The General Consumer Price Index Numbers and Consumer Price Index Number for food group for working class with 1949 as the base year are given below. They reveal that both the general price level and the food group price level were higher during the Second Plan Period and also that the rise in the general price level was more sustained.

Years (1)	General Index Number (2)	Food Group Index Number (3)
1950	101	100
1951	111	116
1952	99	97
1953	100	97
1954	93	88
1955	88	81
1956	100	96
1957	107	103
1958	109	105
1959	108	102
1960	109	99
1961	111	101

WAGE LEVEL

Along with the level of prices, level of wages in a particular tract or region indicates the economic condition of that region or tract. Prices and wages do not always fluctuate in the same direction. The wage level is notoriously sticky and moves rather slowly with both a rise and fall in prices. As such there are no marked differences in the level of wages from year to year.

Taking the first year of the present century, *viz.*, 1900 as the starting point, wages of able-bodied agricultural labourer in the town in Jabalpur was Rs. 3-8-0 per month Artisans, *viz.*, common mason. common carpenter, and common blacksmith were in common getting Rs. 12.5.0 per month. This wage level remained unchanged upto the year 1904. In the year 1905, while the wages of able-bodied agricultural labourer remained the same, *i.e.*, Rs. 3-8-0 per month. there was a rise in the level of wages of the above three artisan classes from Rs. 12-5-0 per month to Rs. 17-8-0 per month. In the year 1905 there was a general rise in the prices of all food-grains in the District over the previous year, and this rise in the prices of food-grains might have been reflected in the rise of wages of the artisan class in the town, but the unchanged position of wages of the common agricultural labourer cannot be readily explained.

A big leap forward in the change of wage level of all the above four classes of workers was taken in the year 1907. In this year able-bodied agricultural labourer was paid Rs. 5 per month, as against Rs. 3-8-0 per month for the previous years while artisans, *viz.*, mason, carpenter and blacksmith were paid Rs. 30 per month, as against Rs. 17-8-0 per month for previous two years. The rise in wage level in the year 1907, over the year 1905, was roughly 71 per cent in case of artisans and 42 per cent in case of the able-bodied agricultural labourer. As stated in the previous section regarding prices the year 1907 was a drought year and prices of food-grains were higher. The reasons for this spurt in wages of all classes may be sought in this agricultural situation.

It is a matter of common knowledge that once the wage levels have risen, it is very difficult to make the labourers accept lower level of wages. The tendency is always to stick to the higher level of wages. True to this tendency the wage level of 1907 persisted in the years to follow, and even rose in the year 1914 the first year of the Great War. In this year, it appears that the labour of masons and carpenters was at a premium. There was a rise in their wages by Rs. 10 i.e., from Rs. 30 to Rs. 40 per month, while wages of able-

bodied agricultural labourer and blacksmith remained unchanged. Wages of able-bodied agricultural labourer began to rise in the year 1916—the rise in his monthly wage being rupee one *i e.,* from Rs. 5 to Rs. 6. By the end of the First World War, *i.e.*, in the year 1917-18 able-bodied agricultural labourer got Rs. 8 per month, mason and carpenter earned Rs. 45 per month as against Rs. 40 in the previous years, and blacksmith Rs. 40 per month as against Rs. 30 and Rs 35 per month paid to him in the years immediately preceding 1917-18.

In the year following the First World War, the wages of able-bodied agricultural labourer had risen from Rs. 8 to Rs. 15 per month in the year 1927. Wages of mason remained constant at Rs. 45 per month. The demand for the labour of carpenter appears to have remained at a premium as his wage level reached Rs. 80 per month in the year 1924 and stabilized at Rs. 60 per month by 1927. Blacksmiths as a class, appear to have lost in the race as except for the three years 1919-20, 1920-21 and 1921-22 during which they got Rs 40 per month as their wages in the following years from 1924 to 1927 their wages came down to Rs. 30 per month.

The 'thirties of the present century saw a general lowering of wage levels of all classes of labourers. In the year 1930 the wage levels of able-bodied agricultural labourer and three artisan classes were: able-bodied agricultural labourer Rs. 11 to Rs 22, common mason Rs 30 to Rs 45, common carpenter Rs. 30 to Rs. 60 and common black-smith Rs. 15 to Rs. 45 per month. From the year 1930. onwards the world-wide trade depression began to deepen, and along with it the wage level in the Jabalpur District as elsewhere began to fall. In the year 1931 and 1932 the monthly rates of wages of able-bodied agricultural labourer in the District moved downward and varied from Rs. 9-6-0 per month to Rs. 11 per month. The level of wages of masons and blacksmiths remained constant at 1930 level, while the wages of carpenters moved downward varying from Rs. 23 to Rs. 30 per month. The sliding down of wages continued and in the year 1934 artisans like masons and blacksmiths got Rs. 15 to Rs. 20 per month as a wage The able-bodied agricultural labourer was paid Rs. 6 to Rs. 8 per month. Though in the following years there were slight ups and downs in the wage levels of artisan class, the maximum that they could bargain for was Rs. 30 per month and the minimum they got was Rs. 15 per month.

A study of the daily wage series for rural and urban areas reveals that at the outbreak of Second World War the wages of all classes of labour, both rural and urban were fairly low. The outbreak of the War did not immediately push up wages which rose

markedly only from 1942, the year in which the prices of food-grains also rose sharply. The following Table shows the wage levels for a few classes of rural and urban workers in some selected years.

Years	Rural				Urban	
	General Agricultural Labourer	Village Carpenter	Village Blacksmith	Common Labourer	Carpenter	Workers in Iron and Hardware
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)
	Rs. As. P.	Rs. As. P.	Rs. As. P.	Rs. As. P.	Rs. As. P.	Rs. As. P.
1939 ..	0 1 6 to 0 2 6	0 12 0	0 8 0 to 0 12 0	0 4 0 to 0 6 0	0 8 0 to 1 4 0	0 1 0 to 1 8 0
1940 ..	0 2 0 to 0 4 0	0 8 0 to 0 12 0	0 8 0 to 0 12 0	0 4 0 to 0 6 0	0 8 0 to 1 8 0	0 5 0 to 1 8 0
1942 ..	0 3 0 to 0 5 0	0 8 0 to 1 8 0	0 8 0 to 1 8 0	0 4 0 to 0 8 0	0 10 0 to 1 12 0	0 6 0 to 1 12 0
1946 ..	0 8 0 to 1 8 0	1 8 0 to 3 0 0	1 8 0 to 3 0 0	1 0 0 to 2 0 0	2 0 0 to 3 8 0	2 0 0 to 3 0 0

The years following 1942 witnessed continuous rise in the wage level for all classes of workers. This rise can be attributed to scarcity conditions obtaining during the War years coupled with increased demand for labour specially in urban centres like Jabalpur and Katni. From the figures given above it is also seen that the gap between rural and urban wages was narrowed down during the War years in case of skilled artisans.

Even after the War the tendency to rise in wage level persisted largely on account of the inflationary conditions. This tendency of wage level to rise continued till 1954. Attempts at economic development and the Korean boom helped to keep both prices and wages high during the period 1950-52. It was only in 1954 that the first signs of a fall in wages was noticed largely on account

of a fall in the prices of food-grains. The wage levels in some selected years after War are shown below.—

Years	Rural			Urban		
	General Agricultural Labourer	Village Carpenter	Village Blacksmith	Common Labourer	Carpenter	Workers in Iron and Hardware
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)
	Rs. As. P.	Rs. As. P.	Rs. As. P.	Rs. As. P.	Rs. As. P.	Rs. As P.
1948	0 10 0 to 1 4 0	2 0 0 to 3 0 0	2 0 0 to 4 0 0	0 12 0 to 3 0 0	2 8 0 to 4 0 0	2 0 0 to 3 8 0
1951	1 0 0 to 1 8 0	3 0 0 to 5 0 0	3 0 0 to 5 0 0	1 0 0 to 2 8 0	2 0 0 to 5 0 0	2 0 0 to 5 0 0
1952	1 0 0 to 1 8 0	3 0 0 to 4 8 0	2 8 0 to 4 8 0	1 0 0 to 2 8 0	2 0 0 to 5 0 0	2 8 0 to 5 0 0
1953	1 0 0 to 1 8 0	3 0 0 to 4 8 0	2 8 0 to 4 8 0	1 0 0 to 2 8 0	2 0 0 to 5 0 0	2 8 0 to 5 0 0
1954	1 0 0 to 1 4 0	2 8 0 to 4 8 0	2 8 0 to 4 8 0	1 0 0 to 1 8 0	3 0 0 to 4 0 0	2 8 0 to 5 0 0
1955	1 0 0 to 1 8 0	3 0 0	3 0 0	1 0 0 to 1 8 0	3 0 0 to 4 0 0	1 0 0 to 5 0 0

In the absence of comparable wage data after the year 1955 some idea of the wage levels can be had from the fixation of minimum wages by the Government in certain Scheduled Industries under the Minimum Wages Act, 1948. It may, however, be remembered that these wage levels were the minimum prescribed for particular type of industrial workers and have no relevance to the general level of wages obtaining in the District. Minimum wage legislation is a welfare measure protecting industrial workers from exploitation.

(in Rs.)

Industry	Region/Locality	Category of Workers	Wage Rate 1956	Wage Rate 1959
Rice, Dal and Flour Mills.	Jabalpur	Male (Adult)	1.25 per day	1.75 per day
		Female (,,)	1.00 ,,	1.50 ,,
	For all centres in the District.	Male (,,)	1.00 ,,	
		Female (,,)	0.75 ,,	
Bidi-Making	Jabalpur Corporation area. ..		1.43 per 1000 bidis.	1.62 per 1000 bidis.
	Other areas ..		1.25 ,,	
Oil-Mills	Jabalpur ..	Male (Adult)	1.37 per day	1.75 per day
		Female (,,)	1.12 ,,	1.50 ,,
	For other centres. ..	Male (Adult)	1.25 ,,	
		Female (,,)	1.00 ,,	
Local Authority	Jabalpur ..	Male (,,)	1.12 ,,	1.75 ,,
		Female (,,)	0.81 ,, ..	1.50 ,,
	All other places.	Male (,,)	0.87 ,,	
		Female (,,)	0.56 ,,	

It is clear that Government had to revise the minimum wages upwards in 1959. This was necessitated by the rising price level. The index of prices for food group in the Jabalpur District in 1956 was 96 which rose to 105 in 1958 and fell by three points in 1959 (102). In the year 1960, there was a further fall in the price index of food group by three points (99), but as a rule the wage level does not immediately respond either to rise or fall in price level. Moreover, the demand for all types of labour has increased in all sectors of the economy, due to the nation-building activities of the Government, and no fall in the wage level is expected in the District as elsewhere.

STANDARD OF LIVING

Data on the standard of living in the District are scanty. The enquiries made in the past have covered one section of the society or the other and vary considerably in their approach. Further any treatment of the standard of living is beset with definitional difficulties. The concept of the standard of living is a complex one. The level of living, it is stated, "is the sizing up of the total life situation" and as such "cannot be wholly monetary concept or even an economic concept. The standard of living not only depends on the real wages or real income, i.e., in terms of the goods and services that the wages or income can command, but also depends upon the social and economic policy directed towards improvement of health, nutrition, housing, employment conditions, education, etc. It also includes the scales of preferences and satisfaction of wants of individual members in a family as also collective wants of groups of communities." The task of defining the standard of living becomes further complicated, when instead of individuals, the levels of living of the classes such as well-to-do, the middle and lower classes has to be ascertained. There is no definite yardstick to distinguish these classes in the society one from the other. Because of these complexities and difficulties a broad treatment of the subject can be attempted. The following observations are based on sources like Agricultural Labour Enquiries 1950-51 and 1956-57, the Report on the family-budgets of industrial workers in Jabalpur, enquiries conducted by the College students, etc.

Looking to the availability of data, population in the District may be broadly divided under workers in agriculture, workers in industries and other workers. As regards workers in the organized industry in the District, the first family-budget enquiry was conducted at Jabalpur during the period September, 1926 to January, 1927. The enquiry was confined to the labour families having a total income of less than

Rs. 100 per month. Another family budget enquiry was made in 1930, on the lines indicated by the Royal Commission on Labour in India. For this enquiry families with an aggregate income per month not ordinarily exceeding Rs. 50 were selected.

The following broad particulars summarise the results of the 1926-27 and 1930 family-budget enquiries.-

	1926-27	1930
Average size of family	3.76	3.57
Percentage expenditure on main groups.		
Food	66.00	64.2
Clothing	10.86	9.0
Fuel-lighting	7.95	4.3
Rent	1.44	2.7
Household repairs	..	2.2
Miscellaneous	13.75	17.6

Taking the figures of 1926-27 and 1930 family-budget enquiries as they are it is found that the percentage expenditure on food of the total expenditure was more in 1926-27 than in 1930; while the expenditure on Miscellaneous items increased in 1930 as compared to 1926-27. Applying the famous Engel's Law of Family Budget which states broadly that more the percentage expenditure on Food, the lower the level of living, it may be concluded that the level of living, of industrial workers in 1930 was better as compared to 1926-27. But such a conclusion may not be justified when considered against the background of the two enquiries. Firstly the period between the two enquiries was so short, i.e., barely three years, as not to warrant any such change in the standard of living. Secondly, there was a difference in the income groups taken for the two enquiries. For the first enquiry income limit was taken as Rs. 100 and less; while for the second it was Rs. 50 i.e., not exceeding Rs. 50. For a family having to spend Rs. 50 if the percentage expenditure on food is 64.2; and for another having to spend Rs. 100 if percentage expenditure on food is 66, any conclusion referring to the higher level of living in the former case will be absurd. Then again it is seen that the average size of the family in 1930 was smaller than in 1926-

27, and furthermore taking the year 1927 as base year, *i.e.*, 100 the working class cost of living index in the year 1930-31 (April-March) was at highest level, of 79, only in the month of April and was lowest in February and March, i.e., 62.

There was a further enquiry into the family-budget of the industrial workers at Jabalpur in the year 1943. The summary result of this enquiry on a comparable level with the previous two enquiries were.—

(1) Size of the family	4.06
Percentage expenditure on·	
(2) Food	58.24
(3) Clothing and foot-wear	11.62
(4) Fuel and lighting	7.22
(5) Rent	2.70
(6) Household requisites	1.76
(7) Miscellaneous	18.46

Here again it is found that the percentage expenditure on Food is lower than those of the previous two enquiries. Percentage of expenditure on clothing and foot-wear had registered an increase, as also an increase in the Miscellaneous group. The average size of the family on the contrary had increased from the previous two enquiries. As stated earlier, it will be hazardous to draw any conclusions from the above figures as regards standard of living. However, average income and expenditure figures of the average family could possibly be resorted to and cited with advantage. For the average size of the industrial worker's family of 4.06 members the monthly (average) income was Rs. 64-10.9. Per capita monthly income amounted to Rs. 15-14-10. As against this figure the average monthly expenditure comprising the items food, fuel and lighting, house rent, clothing and foot-wear, household requisites, and miscellaneous items (excluding remittances, insurance policy and loans) amounted to Rs. 63-10-6. This gives a balance of Rs. 1-0-3 over expenditure per family per month on an average. As against this the expenditure on remittances, insurance policy and loans per month on an average for all income groups amounted to Rs. 4-0-8. Inclusive of this amount the average monthly expenditure comes to Rs. 67-11-2 thus resulting in a deficit of Rs. 3-0-5 per month.

Some insight into the pattern of consumption can be had from the following figures. Out of the percentage expenditure of 58.24 on all food items, only 2.47 per cent went towards items liks meat, fish, eggs, etc., while 7.18 per cent was given for milk and milk products

Percentage expenditure on medicines and medical fees was 1.91 while that on the education of children was barely 0.62 per cent. These are some of the items of expenditure, having a bearing on the standard of living. If anything, these figures indicate the poor standard of living.

Besides these, living conditions of the workers' families have also a bearing on the level of living. In this connection the Enquiry revealed that "the majority of the families or 85.27 per cent of the total lived either in one or two-room tenements, the percentage of those living in two-room tenements, being 50.83 and those in one-room tenements 34.44." These percentages reflect a happier living condition for the majority.

About the indebtedness of the workers the Report mentioned that "the total amount of indebtedness of the 482 families of industrial workers comes to Rs. 27,423-5-0 or Rs. 56-14-4 per family, the amount of loan per family varied from Rs. 255 to Rs 3,951-8-0."

After Independence the National Government, as a part of their welfare measures, undertook to prevent the sweating condition of industrial labour in some of the industries. As a result Minimum Wages Act, 1948 was enacted and the State Government were empowered to fix minimum wages in the Scheduled Industries. Accordingly, the State Government have fixed minimum wages in Oil, *Dal*, Flour, Rice, Bidi, Transport industries, Local Bodies, etc. The necessity of this legislation and subsequent fixation of minimum wages in the industries as distinguished from Living Wage or Fair Wage is an eloquent testimony to the fact that the industrial workers not only did not enjoy any standard of living but they did not get even the subsistence wage, and that subsistence level had to be guaranteed by minimum wage legislation. As a result of this legislation and organization of the industrial workers into Trade Unions, during the Second World War period and subsequently, the living conditions of industrial workers were much improved. Besides minimum wages legislation, Employees' State Insurance Act, 1948, and the Employees' Provident Fund Act, 1952, contributed greatly in improving the lot of the workers in organized industries. But rise in the cost of living everywhere in the post-independence period wiped out the advantage gained in terms of the money wages of the workers and fresh demands for wage increases for subsistence became a settled fact. The result is seen in the revision of minimum wages in 1959, over that of the year 1956. Doubtless, there is an improvement in the living conditions of industrial workers in the post-independence period, as compared to the pre-independence days but there is nothing on record to

show that the industrial workers are enjoying any worth-while standard of living as such. The wage-price spiral is keeping the strife brewing and the objective of a satisfactory standard of living is moving like a mirage.

Some idea of the levels of living of agricultural workers can be had from the zonal particulars given in the Agricultural Labour Enquiry, 1950-51. The Jabalpur District comes under the wheat zone of the State and general conditions of the agriculture labour in the zone may be taken as reflecting the level of living of the labour in the District.

For purposes of the Labour Enquiry, Agricultural Labour was classified into Attached and Casual labour. Attached workers were those who were engaged for all types of work, whereas casual workers were employed on specific jobs, and were, generally, paid on daily basis. Size of the agricultural labourer's family in the wheat zone was 4.2. Industrial worker's family on the contrary comprised 4.06 members, as stated earlier. The adult male casual worker was employed in agricultural pursuit on an average for 183 days, and for 50 days in non-agricultural sphere. In the case of wheat zone which includes Jabalpur District, the Enquiry found out that "where manufacture of bidis is an important occupation, several villagers pursue this as a subsidiary occupation." Bidi-making is a thriving industry in the District, and bidi-rolling is an important source of supplementing the income from agriculture. Of the total annual income of an average agricultural labour family, income from wages constituted as much as 84.4 per cent. Out of this 10.3 per cent came from non-agricultural labour like bidi manufacturing, etc.

The average daily wage in wheat zone of adult male worker in agriculture was Rs. 1-2-10 and annas 0-13-11 for female. In non-agricultural sphere the respective average wages rates were Rs. 1-1-7 and 0-11-4. This shows that wage rates in agriculture compared favourably with those in non-agricultural occupations.

The total average annual income of casual worker's family in wheat zone, amounted to Rs. 487 while that of attached worker's family was Rs. 528. Explaining the higher income in the attached worker's family, the Enquiry concluded that "this was due mainly to their higher income from agricultural labour.".

As against these figures of income average family expenditure annually including ceremonies, amounted to Rs. 523 in case of casual worker and Rs. 540 in case of attached worker, resulting in a deficit of Rs. 36 and Rs. 12, respectively.

As compared to cotton-jowar and rice zones proportion of expenditure on food in wheat zone was recorded the highest, i.e., 91.8 per cent of the total income. This proportion was even higher than the average of all the agricultural labour families which was worked out at 89.3. If anything, this higher proportion of expenditure on food may reflect the lower level of living of agricultural workers in wheat zone, of which Jabalpur District forms a part. Some idea of the level of living of agricultural workers in wheat zone can be had from the fact that out of the annual expenditure on all food items for an average family amounting to Rs. 480.1, only Rs. 1.6 formed an annual expenditure per family on milk and milk products and Rs. 1.7 on meat and fish. Taking the average size of the agricultural labourer's family in wheat zone consisting of 4.2 members, per capita expenditure on nutritional items of food like milk and milk-products, meat and fish, etc., works out to a negligible fraction. The very fact that the annual deficit of Rs. 36 and Rs. 12 per family of casual and attached workers respectively, do not include any expenditure on medicines, education, etc., speaks volumes about the standard of living of the agricultural labourers in the wheat zone and inferentially of that class in the District which forms part of that zone.

After having considered the levels of livng of the workers in Industries and Agriculture, the other workers form but a small part of the population and might be identified with the employees in Public Administration, Municipalities and Local Bodies, as well as those working independently to earn their livelihood, like Tailors, Washermen, Barbers, etc.

Taking the general economic conditions of the employees under the Central and State Governments, it is a common knowledge that the Central Government employees, everywhere are better placed than their counter-parts in the State Government. The dearness allowance, which is being paid to Central Government employees to meet the rising cost of living is higher than that received by the State Government employees at the same place. However, the lot of Central and State Government employees is comparatively better than those in the employment of Municipalities and Local Bodies. Pay and allowances of the Municipal and Local Body employees depend on their income and as the income differs there are differences in the earnings of their employees. Looking to the wide disparities in the scales of the employees, Government thought it necessary to fix the minimum wages of the employees in Municipalities and Local Bodies, under the Minimum Wages Act, 1948. Different rates

of minimum wages are fixed for different categories of employees, so as to guarantee them the minimum basic requirements of life.

The majority of employees of Central Government, State Government, Local Bodies and Municipalities, barring the few top officials and executives come from what may roughly be termed as the lower middle-class in the society. Some light on the standard of living of this class in the society might be thrown by stating below the results of the thesis submitted by the scholar of the University of Jabalpur. The thesis surveys the socio-economic conditions of the primary school teachers in Jabalpur city and relates to the year 1958.

The primary teachers were broadly divided under three categories, *viz.*, those working in Government Schools, under the management of Corporation, and under private management. For purposes of their scale of pay they were also divided into three categories according to their qualifications, i.e., (1) Middle untrained (2) Middle trained but Matric untrained and (3) Matric trained. Their monthly total emoluments including allowances were.—

MINIMUM MONTHLY EMOLUMENTS
OF
PRIMARY TEACHERS

	Government Employment	Corporation Employment	Private Employment
	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.
1. Middle untrained	79.50	73	57 to 115*
2. Middle trained but Matric untrained.	89.50	85	
3. Matric trained	94.50	90	

* Teachers under Mission School, with Higher qualifications than Matriculation.

The average size of the teacher's family consisted of 5.3 members. Average annual income of the teacher's family from salary and other sources like, tuitions, income from rent, income from agriculture and other jobs was Rs. 1,455. On this basis, per capita average annual income worked out at Rs. 274.55. As against this, average annual expenditure of the family was given as Rs. 1,611, and per capita expenditure came to Rs. 304. This left a deficit of

1. M. K. Rajan, thesis for M. Com., final examination

Rs. 156 per family. The composition of items of expenditure, however, included Food, Fuel and lighting, Clothing and Foot-wear, House rent, Education and Medical expenses and Miscellaneous. For purposes of consumption an average family consisted of 4.48 consumption units. Percentage expenditure of the total on food items constituted 54.8 per cent. The following Table of the balanced diet, actual diet of teacher's family and average Indian diet is illustrative of the poor dietary standards.—

Food articles	Balanced diet	Per unit consumption in teacher's family	Per unit average Indian consumption
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)
	Ozs.	Ozs.	Ozs.
1. Cereals	14	14.50	15.5
2. Pulses	3	2.2	2.8
3. Vegetables	10	2.7	1.6
4. Milk	10	5.7	5.0
5. Ghee or vegetable oil	2	1.3	0.38
6. Meat, fish and egg.	4	0.7	0.4
7. Sugar and gur	2	1.6	1.72

Inspite of the highest percentage expenditure on food, the above Table brings out the deficiencies in the dietary standards. Caloric value of this diet per consumption unit was given as 2,342 7 as against the necessary caloric in-take per adult male of 2.800.

Expenditure on Fuel and lighting came to 7.06 per cent of the total expenditure. Clothing and Foot-wear 11..6 per cent; House-rent 7.35 per cent; Education and Medical expenses 10.4 per cent and Miscellaneous 8.76 per cent.

As stated earlier, the pattern of income and expenditure of the primary teachers may be generally taken as representative of all the lower middle-class families, with fixed incomes, which is being daily encroached upon by the rising cost of living.

There is other stratum of society, the members of which eke their livelihood by serving other classes. This stratum of the society may generally be termed as Lower Class, including tailors,

barbers, washerman, household servants, gardeners, watch and ward, etc. Some information about the standard of living of these persons following different vocations as available in the survey conducted by the G. S. College of Commerce and Economics of Jabalpur is given below The survey is limited to the area of Jabalpur city only.

The survey has revealed that the tailors as a class had 6.65 members in the family; barbers 5.07; washermen 7.60; and watch and ward 2.25; household servants 3.55; gardeners 3.40. The biggest size of the family was found to be that of washerman and the smallest was that of watch and ward.

The causes of these variations in the size of the families, were not investigated. Total and per capita income from the main and subsidiary occupations, the latter of which included, bidi-making, rickshaw-pulling, etc., for different occupational groups are as under.—

Occupational group	Total income (Monthly)	Per capita income (Monthly)
(1)	(2)	(3)
Tailors	190.4	29.0
Barbers	123.5	24.3
Washermen	196.0	25.7
Household servants	82.8	23.3
Gardeners	44.0	12.9
Watch and Ward	47.5	21.1

An interesting comparison may here be established with the income of primary teachers in the city. Average size of the teacher's family was 5.3, which compared favourably with the size of the family of a barber, which was 5.07. However, the average annual income of a teacher from main and subsidiary sources was Rs. 1,455 while that of the barber worked out to Rs. 1,476. Tailors and washermen had definitely higher annual income, *viz.* about Rs. 2,280 and Rs. 2,352, respectively, than that of the primary teachers, though the size of their families was bigger.

As against the per capita monthly income figures given above, the per capita expenditure for these different professionals on all items of expenditure, including cereals and pulses, ghee, oil, meat, fish and eggs, sugar and gur, tea, pan and smoking, drinking, clothing

and foot-wear, housing, recreation, education, medicine, conventional necessaries, miscellaneous items, etc., was Rs. 26 for tailors; Rs. 23.2 for barbers, Rs. 22.6 for washermen; Rs. 19.0 for household servants, Rs. 18 for gardeners and Rs. 18.7 for watch and ward. This shows that in practically all cases the per capita income exceeded per capita expenditure. Budgets of the primary teachers, on the contrary, showed an annual deficit or Rs. 156 over income. By this comparison, it is not intended to point out that the standard of living of the Lower Classes is higher than that of the Lower Middle-classes with fixed incomes. Such a categorical conclusion on the basis of the limited data available will be hazardous. However, this comparison definitely high-lights the plight of the Lower-Middle-class people in the society with fixed incomes.

GENERAL LEVEL OF EMPLOYMENT

Little information relating to the levels of employment in different occupations is available. It is, therefore, inevitable that the occupational pattern as set out earlier is taken as broadly indicative of employment in different occupations. Agricultural occupations in the District as per 1951 Census absorbed 57.2 per cent of the population, which included dependents. Non-agricultural occupations on the contrary absorbed 42.8 per cent including dependents Of all the non-agricultural sectors, production other than cultivation supported 16 8 per cent of the total population Other services and miscellaneous sources came next inorder of importance supporting 14.6 per cent of the total population. Commerce and transport followed with 7 8 per cent and 3 6 per cent of the total population.

Jabalpur District is comparatively better developed industrially. The Government of India Defence Establishments, Cement, Potteries, General Engineering and Bidi-making are the important industries affording scope for employment. The constructional activities in public and private, as well as the Central and State Government administrative departments, offer further scope for employment in the District because of the nation-building activities undertaken under the Five Year Plans.

Some idea of the employment trends in the District can, however, be gathered from the Employment Market Information data collected and released by the Employment Exchange Agency from time to time, for Public and Private sectors of the economy. The registrations at employment exchanges being voluntary the Exchange Live Registers do not fully reflect the unemployment trends in the

area. However, in the absence of any other authentic data the changes in the Live Register may be taken as broadly indicative of the trend of unemloyment in the District. The Table below gives the salient Exchange statistics for the period 1959-62.

Period	No. on Live Register quarterly average	Vacancies notified quarterly average	No. on the Live Register per vacancy notified	Unemployment Index
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
1959-60	13,849	1,061	13.0	100.0
1960-61	16,586	1,199	13.8	119.8
1961-62	21,315	1,693	12.6	153.9

It is clear that the number of applicants seeking Exchange assistance has increased gradually.

The number of employees in different sectors (excluding agriculture) for the quarters ending 31st March, 1961 and 31st March, 1962 are as given below.—

Name of the Sector	No. of reporting establishments		No. of employees as on	
	31-3-61	31-3-62	31-3-61	31-3-62
1. Mining and Quarrying ..	12	15	7,306	1,148
2. Manufacturing	199	217	12,558	34,347
3. Construction	20	33	661	2,956
4. Trade and Commerce ..	77	90	1,130	1,684
5. Transport, Storage and Communications	9	29	245	25,010
6. Services	151	264	2,354	20,702

Despite the fact that no effective comparison can be made on the basis of these data because of the difference in the number of reporting establishments, which is invariably higher as on 31st March, 1962 as compared to the 31st March, 1961 the general employment trend in different occupations can be said to be satisfactory, except in Mining and Quarrying.

Following Table gives changes in the volume of employment in different sections of the Public Sector as on 31st March, 1961 and 31st March, 1962.

Section of the Public Sector	No. of reporting establishment		No. of Employees as on	
	31-3-61	31-3-62	31-3-61	31-3-62
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
1. Central Government	57	58	36,748	46,040
2. State Government	92	89	10,822	10,627
3. Quasi-Government	14	13	3,104	3,003
4. Local Bodies	10	12	4,271	6,143

Changes in the volume of employment as observed from the above Table appear to be solely due to the changes in the number of reporting establishments for these periods. Yet, some idea of extent of employment under different sections of the Public Sector can be gathered from the above figures For example, Central Government appears to be the biggest employer of workers in the District.. This is accounted for by the location of Ordnance Factories, Telegraph Workshop, Railways, Posts and Telegraphs, etc., in the District.

Writing about the employment trends in the District the Director of Employment Exchanges, Madhya Pradesh, may be quoted in extenso as under.—

"The trends as were noted currently, were that at the Employment Exchanges of the district, the raw matriculates fresh from schools, flocked more upto October. .... Keenness was marked among them for clerical jobs in the Government Departments and other establishments of repute. Tendency to enhance qualification through learning typing and stenography, etc., was less. Cushy jobs and quick-work was still their expectation Mobility among them was not readily notable unless jobs offered were well-paid .... The Central Government and the State Government establishments had nothing much to offer except, seldom, to the registrants of the Appointments Branch, who were highly qualified and possessed engineering, managerial or professional qualifications. Scope existed and also was expanding gradually for artisans and technicians in the Bhilai Steel Project and other development projects in Madhya Pradesh and the two Exchanges of the district were using their utmost endeavour to help the jobless. Business houses

private householders, mills, industrial concerns, commercial offices reported insignificant scope for reinforcing their working personnel.".

"Artisans as carpenters, masons, mochis, and painters were mainly on their own private jobs but registered with the Employment Exchanges in the hope of securing well-paid higher jobs wherever these could be".

"Women folk presenting themselves at the Exchanges, if educated, desired mostly teaching work or other work at such concerns and work-places where women worked or the places were of repute. The illiterate or the semi-educated women refrained from accepting domestic work because they felt the pay offered was not satisfying . Graduates and under-graduates seemed not much mobile, for they either wanted Central Government jobs or easy jobs locally to keep them going with their studies locally. The State Government jobs did attract them but a large percentage always got eliminated, because of a lack of knowledge of typing, accountancy, stenography or office experience, as generally required by employers. Young persons from technical schools or polytechnics who registered visualised gainful jobs and for that effort continued .. Officers expressed the hope that as the Bhilai Steel Project and the Heavy Electricals Private Ltd., of Bhopal in the State gained momentum and activities expanded, considerable relief might be caused by the Exchanges to ease the problem of unemployment. Generally Ayyahs, Midwives, Sanitary Inspectors, Stenographers, first class Boiler Attendants, Accountants, Nurses and high-class technicians were scarce at the Exchanges.".

Population Shifts from Agriculture to Industry

As regards shifting of population from Agriculture to Industry, and from one industry to another, nothing can be said definitely for want of data having a bearing on the subject. However, Bidi Labour Readjustment Committee of the year 1949 appointed by the State Government to go into the question of effects on Agriculture *viz-a-vis* growth of bidi industry, had noted that there was a shifting of population from Agriculture to bidi industry. In so far as Jabalpur District was concerned the then Deputy Commissioner Jabalpur had put it on record that the "exact figures (regarding proportion of agricultural and non-agricultural labourers engaged in bidi industry) are not available but the record shows that there

were very serious complaints that a very large proportion of agricultural labourers particularly in the Sihora Tahsil were diverted towards bidi-making because of the lucrative rate offered in the year 1946. It was reported that one of the main causes for large areas remaining uncultivated in the Sihora Tahsil was due to the fact that agricultural labour was diverted towards bidi work". Bidi industry in the District is a thriving industry because of easy-going nature of work and lucrative wages. There might be some shift of agricultural population to the bidi industry but there is nothing on record to show the extent or magnitude of the shifting. But such shifting need not be on large-scales as to be noticeable, because much of the bidi-making is carried on through contractors in what are known as feeder-factories. Bidi-making except for a few registered factories in big towns has become a cottage industry in the real sense of the term-as women, children and even adult male, work on bidi-making in their cottages in spare time and make over the produce to the contractor who supplies the raw-material like *tendu* leaves, tobacco, thread, etc. As such, this may not involve any major shifting of workers from Agriculture to bidi industry.

Even though Jabalpur District is better industrialized, yet the phenomenon of shifting of workers from one industry to another, essentially a feature of highly industrialized economy, is unlikely to occur to any noticeable extent in a small administrative unit as a District.

Employment Exchange

The establishment of the Jabalpur Employment Exchange dates back to the year 1945. The critical situation created by the Second World War led to the creation of a nucleus employment service in the Country in the shape of National Labour Service Tribunals to meet the growing requirements of man-power for war purpose. In the year 1945, in the erstwhile Central Provinces and Berar, a sub-regional Employment Exchange was established at Jabalpur. The Employment Exchange organization then worked under the Director General of Resettlement and Employment, Government of India in the Ministry of Labour. The jurisdiction of the Sub-Regional Employment Exchange at Jabalpur at that time, extended to the Districts of Jabalpur, Hoshangabad, Sagar, Mandla, Balaghat, Chhindwara, Nimar and Betul.

On the eve of the Reorganization of the States, *i.e.*, from the 1st November, 1956, the Employment Service Organization came under the Labour Department of the State Government. The Sub-Regional Employment Exchange at Jabalpur during this year was converted into Regional Employment Exchange. The Jabalpur Exchange had under its jurisdiction the districts of Jabalpur, Seoni, Mandla, Damoh, Narsimhapur and Balaghat. Another Employment Exchange was established at Katni in the month of March 1958, with jurisdiction over Katni Tahsil. The office of the Director of Employment Exchanges is also located at Jabalpur. This being so, besides the work of registration of vacancies and placements, the Jabalpur Exchange performs the coordination work on a State-wide basis.

At present the jurisdiction of Jabalpur Exchange is limited to Jabalpur District only.

During the year 1958 the Employment Market Information and Vocational Guidance and Employment Counselling schemes were introduced in Jabalpur and Katni Exchanges in the District. Under the former scheme information is being collected in the Exchange areas in a scientific manner to assess the occupational and industrial characteristics of the working population and to estimate the impact of development plans on employment. Vocational Guidance and Employment Counselling scheme is for the benefit of the young school learners and adults who are guided in a specialised way on the various occupations and careers open to them. Career pamphlets have been prepared and detailed information on various occupations and trades are available for the young employment seekers.

Occupational Information scheme was introduced at the Exchange earlier in the year 1957. This scheme purports to collect information concerning jobs which is the basic material required by the Exchanges in their task of classification and placement of employment seekers. Under this scheme efforts are made to organize and develop in collaboration with techinical experts and representatives of workers, Industry and Government, a systematic programme of occupational research and analysis with a view to standardising skills and functions of the different types of tradesmen and also to compile a comprehensive Occupational Dictionary, which would provide nomenclature of trades and occupations as well as their definitions. Some idea of the work done by the Jabalpur Employment Exchange can be had from the following figures of registrations and placings. In comparing figures, however, care

has to be taken to view it in the light of changes in the area of its jurisdiction from time to time as set out earlier.

Years	Registrations	Placings
( )	(2)	(3)
1951	21,040	3,308
1952	19,501	2,426
1953	15,702	1,183
1954	15,325	1,134
1955	11,929	940
1956	11,529	1,175
1957	13,993	1,274

In the month of March 1958, Employment Exchange was established at Katni in the District. Figures for registrations and placings are given below separately for the two Exchanges.

Years	Jabalpur		Katni	
	Registrations	Placings	Registrations	Placings
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
1958 .	13,202	867	3,400	131
1959	23,482	1,062	2,996	185
1960	24,473	1,699	2,722	165
1961 .. .	30,867	1,985	3,886	241

NATIONAL PLANNING AND COMMUNITY DEVELOPMENT

In May, 1952 the Government of India decided to launch a nation-wide Community Development programme with a view to improving rural life under conditions of democratic planning. A beginning was made in Jabalpur District with the establishment of two development blocks, one at Barela in Jabalpur Tahsil and the other at Bohriband in Sihora Tahsil on 2nd October, 1953. In the succeeding years, the coverage was extended by starting more community development blocks. By the end of the First Plan period the District had four development blocks covering a total of 775 villages. Six blocks covering 1,122 villages were added during the Second Plan period. Till 2nd October, 1962 the programme had further been extended to cover 539 more villages through the opening of three new blocks. Thus in the span of nine years from 1953 to 1962 almost the whole rural sector of the District (2,436 villages out of a total of 2,467 villages) is included in the process of planned development. The location and coverage of the development blocks of the District are shown in the Table below.—

S. No.	Tahsil	Name of Block	Date of establishment	No of Villages	Area in square miles	Population
1.	Jabalpur ..	Barela .	2-10-1953	184	205.9	69,284
2.	Sihora ..	Bohriband ..	2-10-1953	195	352.3	61,384
3.	Patan ..	Patan ..	1-4-1954	246	225.0	57,725
4.	Katni-Murwara	Kanti-Murwara	1-4-1954	150	245.6	91,004
5.	Patan ..	Shahpur (Bhitoni)	1-10-1956	242	300.1	53,192
6.	Sihora ..	Sihora ..	1-4-1957	161	182	56,554
7.	Katni-Murwara	Barhi-Barwara	2-10-1657	160	374	59,800
8.	Jabalpur .	Kundam ..	2-10-1958	194	330.0	42,436
9.	Sihora .	Dhimar Khera	2-10-1959	221	318.5	59,395
10.	Katni-Murwara	Vijay-Raghogarh	1-10-1960	141	268	67,224
11.	Jabalpur ..	Bargi ..	1-4-1961	177	272	57,780
12.	Sihora .	Majhauli .	2-10-1962	221	229	59,941
13.	Katni ..	Rithi ..	2-10-1962	141	262	54.211

In the beginning the programme was carried out in three distinct phases. Each block was worked for three years under a supplementary programme of somewhat less comprehensive character known as the National Extension Service. Three years of intensive development as community development block followed and then

the block reached the post-intensive phase. In April, 1958 this was substituted by a two-stage pattern. Before entering Stage I every block is in a Pre-Extension phase for a period of one year. Stage I with a budget provision of Rs. 12.00 lakh for five years is a period of intensive development and is followed by another five year period called Stage II during which development work is continued with a relatively reduced budget provision of Rs. 1.00 lakh per year. In accordance with the revised pattern blocks which were National Extension Service blocks on 31st March 1958 were converted into Stage I blocks and all blocks which were in post-intensive phase on 31st March, 1958 were converted into Stage II blocks. The community development blocks remained unaltered. The present stage of blocks in Jabalpur District and the expenditure incurred on these blocks are given in the following Table.

(Rs. in lakhs)

S. No.	Name of Block	Stage as on 2nd October 1962	Government Expenditrre during First Plan period	Government Expenditure during Second Plan period	Government Expenditure during 1961-63	Total Government Expenditure
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)
1.	Barela	.. II	3.08	11.15	1.49	15.72
2.	Bohriband	.. III	7.13	8.74	1.70	17.57
3	Patan ..	.. II	2.43	8.85	1.73	13.01
4.	Katni-Murwara	. II	2.33	10.66	2.22	15.21
5.	Shahpura ..	.. I	..	4.64	2.01	6.65
6.	Sihora ..	.. I	..	4.89	3.57	8.46
7.	Barhi-Darwara	.. I	..	3.43	3.34	6.77
8.	Kundam ..	.. I	..	1.37	2.90	4.27
9.	Dhimar Khera	.. I	..	0.50	1.87	2.37
10.	Vijay Raghogarh	.. I	..	N.A.	1.35	1.35
11.	Bargi ..	.. I	..	..	0.78	0.78
12	Majhauli ..	.. P.E.	..	..	N.A.	N.A.
13.	Rithi	.. P.E.	..	..	N.A.	N.A

Note.—(1) Expenditure figures given above are departmental.

(2) Stage III indicates that the block has already completed Stage II and development work is limited to continuance of programme completed during Stage II.

The people's initiative and their participation are the main-stay of the community development programmes. People's participation is a measure both of the acceptance and the success of the programme. Such participation comes through their association with Gram Panchayats, Co-operatives, etc. In case of programmes where for a qualifying scale of voluntary contribution is laid down, their contribution is an expression of their initiative and association with the programme. In Jabalpur District people's contribution during the First Plan period in four blocks amounted to Rs. 3.90 lakhs as against Rs. 14·97 lakhs spent by the Government while during the Second Plan period people's contribution and Government expenditure in nine blocks were Rs. 13.75 lakhs and Rs. 54.23 lakhs, respectively.

Agricultural development is accorded a high priority in the programme. Among other activities included are extension of irrigation facilities and provision of wider education, better communication, improvement in health and measures for women's and children's welfare. The physical achievements under some heads of development activities are given below.—

Agriculture.—The main activities under this head are the distribution of fertilizers and improved seeds, demonstration of improved agricultural practices, digging of compost pits, etc., with a view to achieving an increase in agricultural production. During the Second Plan period 51,022 maunds of improved seeds and 34,258 maunds of chemical fertilizer were distributed in nine block areas. Nearly 13,000 compost pits were dug and 10,215 agricultural demonstrations were arranged. In nine blocks 10,245 acres of land was reclaimed. It is difficult to ascribe changes in agricultural production to any definite set of activities. These details, however, reveal the magnitude of the effort.

Closely connected with the problem of agricultural development is the question of prevention of cattle diseases and their treatment. Up to 1958 in the block areas in the District 84,278 animals were treated and 2,45,766 animals were vaccinated and four veterinary dispensaries were started. In the year 1958-59 the number of animals treated was 38,968. Between 1956 and 1961 the block areas were supplied with 112 pedigree animals and 835 pedigree birds.

Irrigation.—The main role of block agencies is to make available loans for the construction and repair of tanks, wells, etc. During 1956-61 only two new tanks were constructed in the blocks of the District, the number of new wells constructed and old wells repaired being 124 and 143, respectively.

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Education.—Starting of literacy centres, reading-rooms and libraries are generally the activities carried on under this head. Up to the 31st March, 1958 about 247 adult education centres were started in the block areas and 1,757 adults were made literate. There were 83 new schools running and 59 schools were converted into basic schools. In the year 1958-59, about 31 libraries and reading-rooms were established in the block areas and 2,510 adults were made literate. In the succeeding year, *i.e.*, 1959-60, 84 adult literacy centres and 50 reading-rooms and libraries were started. The number of adults made literate was 584. In the year 1960-61, the number of adults made literate was 402 and 38 literacy centres and 69 reading-rooms and libraries were started.

Health.—Activities in respect of public health consists of opening of primary health centres, construction of rural latrines, paving of village lanes, drains, etc. With a view to providing sufficient drinking water, new wells are constructed, old ones are renovated and hand-pumps are installed. During the Second Plan period, 12 primary and subsidiary health centres were set up, 304 drinking water wells were constructed and 428 wells were repaired. The total number of rural latrines constructed was 438, while the number of soakage pits dug was about 4,900.

Co-operation—Up to March, 1958 173 new co-operative societies were started in the block areas. The number of societies started in the succeeding years was 142 in 1958-59, 106 in 1959-60 and 123 in 1960-61.

Transport.—Construction of *kutcha* and *pucka* roads, culverts, etc., is undertaken in the block area, with a view to improving transport facilities. Between 1956 and 1961, new *kutcha* roads measuring 518 miles and 50 culverts were constructed.

Steps were also taken towards promoting the welfare of women and children. Mahila Mandals, Youth Clubs and Farmers' Unions were started.

The impact of these different activities in the block areas on the life of the people can best be described in the language of the Committee appointed by the Government to evaluate the community development programme in the year 1958. "The Committee have on the whole found that in regard to provision of certain amenities and facilities to the villagers, appreciable advance has been made in the blocks. With the help of the block funds large number of construction works including buildings for schools, dispensaries and

recreation of villagers, sanitary wells, roads, culverts, drains, pavements, etc., have come up to increase the convenience of people. Thus on the whole it cannot be denied that the impact of the programme has increased certain amenities in the villages and introduced a number of improvements in the village life. There is also no denying of the fact that these improvements have come through active participation of the people, although the actual quantum of participation may have been different in different areas,".

However, the Committee further adds, "From the point of view of the improving economic conditions by increasing agricultural production, introducing village industries and increasing employment facilities in the villages, it is difficult to make, to any extent, an accurate objective assessment of the results achieved. But there is no doubt to believe that the results are much short of the targets. Wherever the Committee went, a general question was mooted by the farmers whether as a result of the overall efforts made under the programme, agricultural production had increased, and the reply everywhere was in affirmative, but no clear indication as to the extent of increase was available.".

CHAPTER X

GENERAL ADMINISTRATION

For purposes of general administration Jabalpur District has been divided. functionally, into four sub-divisions, namely, Jabalpur, Sihora, Murwara and Patan It forms part of the Jabalpur division which is one of the seven administrative units into which the State of Madhya Pradesh is divided. Since 1861, except for a brief interval, a Commissioner has held charge of the division with his headquarters in Jabalpur town The institution of Commissionership was first introduced on the formation of Central Provinces which were divided into four divisions, each controlled by a Commissioner, with districts headed by Deputy Commissioners. Under this set-up the Jabalpur division comprised the districts of Jabalpur, Mandla, Seoni, Chhindwara and Narsimhapur In 1863-64, the Sagar division was abolished and a new division called the Narmada division, with headquarters at Hoshangabad, was created.

In the territorial readjustments that followed, Jabalpur division came to include the districts of Sagar and Damoh, while Chhindwara and Narsimhapur districts were transferred to the newly-formed division. This position continued until October, 1948, when the posts of Commissioners were abolished. When the reorganised State of Madhya Pradesh was constituted, it was considered that in a state of this size and character there should be an effective intermediary authority between the government on the one hand and the Collectors on the other

Accordingly, the posts of Commissioners were revived from November 1, 1956. Under the new set-up Jabalpur division comprises the districts of Jabalpur, Sagar, Mandla, Chhindwara, Balaghat, Damoh, Narsimhapur and Seoni.

The Commissioner is principally the Head of the Revenue Department in his division but, in so far as the needs and exigencies of the district administration are concerned, he is expected to keep himself abreast of all political happenings, outbreaks of lawlessness, and other matters affecting the well-being of the people, such as, serious mal-administration in any department or any hitch in the working of the administrative machinery. He is at the same time responsible for making periodical inspections of the offices of all revenue officers in his charge. He has powers to hear appeals or to

revise orders passed by the subordinate executive magistrates under the Madhya Pradesh Land Revenue Code 1959, Arms Act, and Explosives Act. With the recent creation of the post of Additional Commissioner in April 1962, much of the revenue work is being done by him. The Commissioner is entrusted with the execution of the schemes connected with planning and development, besides co-ordinating the activities of various departments in this sphere. Two posts of gazetted officers, the Development Assistant and the Accounts Officer, have been created for attending to the development and tribal welfare work. The Commissioner is also vested with powers of general supervision over local bodies in the division.

At present the Commissioner's office at Jabalpur is divided into five Sections under a Superintendent. These Sections deal with land revenue, food, police, excise, railways, development, local bodies etc.

District Administration

The district is the basic unit of administration. The Collector, as the head of the district administration, is the key-functionary of government, having large powers and wide responsibilities. In many ways he is a link between the State Government and the people, the custodian of law and authority in the district and the pivot on which the local administration turns He is the chief executive officer of the district and, as such, he exercises general supervision over various departments in regard to their non-technical work. He inspects all state offices and the works undertaken in the district. Co-ordination of the activities of various departments, control over local self-governing bodies with power to intervene, if necessary, contact with the public in committees or during interviews with visitors, execution of government schemes, such as, National Savings Campaign and Grow More Food Campaign, miscellaneous functions, such as, *muafi* and *waqf*, panchayats, census, election and relief measures in time of emergencies like floods, epidemics etc, also come within his purview. In recent years the position of Collectors, as the head of district administration, has become one of the expanding responsibilities and growing complexities

Collectorate

The Collector of Jabalpur District has one Additional Collector and 24 Assistants, of whom 10 are Deputy Collectors and five Assistant Collectors. Three Assistant Collectors are in charge of Jabalpur, Sihora and Katni Sub-divisions, while a Deputy Collector is in charge of Patan Sub-division. Seven Deputy Collectors are Judicial

Magistrates, two act as Additional District Magistrate and City Magistrate, while seven Deputy Collectors assist the Collector in the work of development, food and civil supplies, election, panchayats, etc. Two Deputy Collectors and two Assistant Collectors are under training.

The functions of the Collector relate to revenue, law and order, development, and other cognate matters. The collection of land revenue rests with the Collector who has to see that the revenue due is recovered punctually and with the minimum of coercion, and that the collections are properly credited and accounted for. The Collector and his staff have to undertake, further, the collection of fees and taxes under various Acts except forest and Sales Tax dues for which departmental officers have been given powers for recovery. These dues are recoverable as arrears of land revenue.

For the purpose of revenue administration the District is divided into four tahsils, viz., Jabalpur, Sihora, Murwara and Patan. There is a Tahsildar in each tahsil, except at Jabalpur where two Additional Tahsildars have been entrusted with the executive and Nazul work. The Tahsildars are assisted by Naib-Tahsildars, their number in the Jabalpur, Sihora, Patan and Murwara tahsils being nine, seven, three and seven, respectively. At the village level the principal representative is the Patwari, each of whom is in charge of one or more villages grouped in 416 Patwari circles. These are placed under the direct supervision of 23 Revenue Inspectors. The tahsil-wise break-up of these figures is as follows:—

Tahsil	Number of Revenue Inspector's circle.	Number of Patwari circle.
Jabalpur	6	94
Sihora	6	122
Patan	4	71
Murwara	7	129
Total	23	416

At the district level a Superintendent of Land Records supervises the work of Revenue Inspectors and Patwaris with the assistance of four assistant superintendents.

Consolidation of agricultural holdings and prevention of fragmentation are post-war reconstruction schemes in which the Land Records Department has to play a vital role, especially in the pre-

liminary stage of measurement of all new sub-divisions. In regard to this work the Collector is provided with a staff comprising one Consolidation Officer, one Assistant Settlement Superintendent, 20 Chakbandi Inspectors and 20 Chakbandi Madadgars.

As regards the Excise Act, Collector is the agency through which the excise and prohibition policy of the government is carried out. For this purpose the entire District is divided into six circles, *viz.*, Town West, Town East, Shahpura, Kundam, Sihora, and Katni. The first four circles are in Jabalpur tahsil, but Shahpura circle includes parts of Patan as well. Each circle is looked after by an Excise Sub Inspector. One Sub-Inspector is in charge of Sihora ware-house, whereas Jabalpur ware-house is controlled by an Excise Inspector with the assistance of two Sub-Inspectors. There is a separate Prosecuting Inspector at Jabalpur for the excise cases in the courts.

The Collector is in charge of the Treasury and is responsible to the government for due accounting of all money received and disbursed and for the safe custody of cash, notes, stamps, opium, securities and other government property. As his delegate the Treasury Officer is responsible to the Collector for the right discharge of his duties. The District Treasury is being supervised by the Treasury Officer, while the four sub-treasuries are in charge of the respective Tahsildars.

As regards the Registration Act, the Collector is assisted by the Treasury Officer who functions as *ex-officio* District Registrar. There are four Sub-Regisration Offices located at each tahsil headquarters in charge of Sub-Registrars.

The Food and Civil Supplies Officer is Collector's assistant in regard to essential articles He is assisted by an Assistant Food and Civil Supplies Officer, four Inspectors, two Assistant Inspectors and two Godown Superintendents.

The following are some of the officers of the District, who have more or less intimate contact with the Collector in matters relating to their departments as they place their professional and technical advice and assistance at the disposal of the general administration whenever required:—

(1) The Civil Surgeon, (2) Executive Engineer, (3) Divisional Forest Officer, (4) District Educational Officer, (5) District Welfare and Panchayat Officer, (6) District Publicity Officer,

In the maintenance of law and order the Collector, as District Magistrate, is assisted by the police and magistracy, the two components of district administration. The police force in the District are commanded by the Senior Superintendent of Police. The magistracy includes the Additional District Magistrate, four Sub-Divisional Magistrates, one City Magistrate, and four Tahsildars, all of whom except two Tahsildars, function as magistrates of the first class. In addition to these, there are three Tahsildars and 23 Naib-Tahsildars who are invested with powers of a magistrate of second class. The Judicial Magistrate and the Additional District Magistrate try exclusively criminal cases. One Judicial Magistrate is stationed at Sihora and the other at Katni, while the remaining three hold their courts in Jabalpur City.

The Collector is also responsible for the administration of the various plan schemes in the District. In the discharge of his functions in this sphere, he is assisted by a Deputy Collector who is in charge of the Development Section For this purpose the District is divided into 13 Development Blocks, each under a Block Development Officer assisted by technical personnel consisting of specialists drawn from various departments. These include Extension Officers from Agriculture, Veterinary and Animal Husbandry, Co-operative, Public Health, Social Education, Industries, Public Works Department, etc. At the village level there are 10 Gramsevaks and two Gramsevikas attached to each Block. With a view to co-ordinating the development activities of various departments a Block Development Committee has been formed for each Block on a uniform pattern. It comprises both officials and non-officials, the latter being local Members of Parliament, Members of Legislative Assembly, members of Janapad Sabhas, and Gram Panchayats. The Collector or a Sub-Divisional Officer functions as its Secretary. The activities of this committee include all aspects of rural development and seek to ensure peoples' co-operation in all nation-building activities, particularly those relating to agricultural production. Besides this, the Collector is also associated with a number of official and non-official committees in the District. The noteworthy among the former is the District Advisory Committee which was set up in every district by amalgamating all existing committees. The Collector is the Chairman of this committee which has many non-officials as members, such as, the local Members of Legislative Assembly, Members of Parliament, the Sarpanchas of Panchayats, the Mayor of Jabalpur Corporation, the President of Congress Committee, a representative each of labour and indusrty, and the convener of local branch of Bharat Sevak Samaj. A Deputy Collector works as the Secretary of the committee. Its function is to advice the Collector in respect

of problems of a purely local character which affect the general public interest. It is further charged with securing public co operation for the propagation of the prohibition programme.

OTHER OFFICES—DISTRICT AND DIVISIONAL LEVEL

Jabalpur, being an important place, is the headquarters of various Government Departments which exercise their jurisdiction beyond the limits of the revenue district, sometimes covering one or two neighbouring revenue divisions as well.

Police

The Superintendent of Police, who is the executive head of the police force, is invested with the command of the police under the direction of Collector, although in administrative matters he is subject to the general control of the Deputy Inspector General of Police, Jabalpur Range. For purposes of police administration, Jabalpur District is divided into 32 police stations and two out-posts. The Police stations are in charge of Sub-Inspectors and out-posts in charge of Head Constables. For traffic matters, there is a separate Branch under a Subedar.

The railways running through the District are under the charge of a Superintendent of Railway Police who has three Divisional Inspectors to assist him His charge covers the entire Western Section comprising nine police stations and six out-posts in an area of 1036 miles He is under the general control of the Deputy Inspector General of Police (Crimes and Railway) Bhopal, and the Inspector General of Police. The headquarters of three sub-divisions are located at Jabalpur, Itarsi and Bina

Jabalpur is also the headquarters of the Commandant General of Home Guards organisation in Madhya Pradesh. The Offices of the Divisional and District Home Guards units are also located here.

Road Transport Authority

Prior to 1944, the Superintendent of Police, Jabalpur used to deal with the administration of the Motor Vehicle Acts in the District Later, this work was entrusted to the Motor Transport Officer with jurisdiction over the area included in the districts of Jabalpur, Sagar, Mandla, Damoh, Narsimhapur and Seoni.

On 1st April 1946, this office was converted into Regional Transport Office having jurisdiction over the said districts and the

work relating to registering and licensing of motor-vehicles was transferred to the Regional Transport Officer from the Superintendents of Police of the respective districts. This position continued till 31st October, 1956. On the Reorganisation of States, the jurisdiction of Regional Transport office was extended to the districts of Balaghat and Chhindwara also. The Regional Transport Officer functions as the Secretary and Executive Officer of the Authority. In his capacity as Regional Transport Officer he is the appropriate authority for licensing drivers and conductors, registering vehicles, recovering road, passenger and goods taxes, and also for prosecuting in cases of offences committed under the Motor Vehicles Act. He is assisted by an Assistant Regional Transport Officer, two Motor-Vehicle Inspectors, two Passenger and Goods Tax Inspectors, one Regional Transport Inspector, two Head Constables and seven Constables.

Education

Jabalpur is the headquarters of the Divisional Superintendent of Education whose jurisdiction extends over five districts, *viz.*, Mandla, Jabalpur, Balaghat, Sagar and Damoh. His responsibility is confined to the supervision of higher secondary schools, normal schools and Basic training institutions. Under him is a District Educational Officer who is the chief inspecting officer of the District so far as middle and primary schools are concerned. He is assisted by 22 Assistant District Inspectors of schools, each holding charge of a range covering 50 to 60 schools.

Public Health

The Civil Surgeon, Jabalpur is the administrative head of the Medical Organisation in the District. He is, in addition, the Superintendent of the Victoria Hospital and exercises general supervision over the medical staff attached to the Central Jail, Police Hospital, Mahakoshal Mahavidyalaya College dispensary, Government Engineering College Dispensary and S. A. F. Hospital, Jabalpur. He has under him a well-qualified staff working in different capacities. It consists of an Additional Civil Surgeon, one Assistant Civil Surgeon, one Superintendent of T. B. Clinic, 10 Assistant Surgeons, 13 Assistant Medical Officers, one Ayurvedic Inspector, one Inspector, seven Vaidyas and other ancillary staff. Primary Health Centres under Medical Officers are functioning at 12 places in the District. Besides, there are 17 Family Planning Centres and one Regional Family Planning Training Centre each managed by a Medical Officer.

The National Malaria Eradication Programme was launched in Jabalpur in 1958. The work is being supervised by an Assistant Director of Health Services who is responsible to the Director of Health Services, Indore. There are under him eight other units which look after this work in 13 other districts in the region.

B C. G. Campaign is in operation since May 1951 in this District and the Supervising Medical Officer B. C. G Campaign, Jabalpur Region, is looking after this work.

The National Smallpox Eradication Programme Unit started functioning, with its headquarters at Jabalpur, from 1st November 1963. The unit aims at covering the entire population of the District within the shortest possible period

Office of the Assistant Controller, Weights and Measures

This office was established in 1959 as a result of the introduction of metric weights and measures in the country. It is a divisional office covering the entire area included in Jabalpur revenue division. The Assistant Controller is assisted in his work by District Inspectors and Tahsil Inspectors. The duty assigned to these officers is to popularise the use of standard weights and measures in the region. No weights or measures, or weighing or measuring instrument can be sold, delivered or used for trade unless they are verified or reverified in the manner prescribed by rules and stamped by an Inspector with a stamp of verification. Fees are fixed for the verification, stamping. etc It is the duty of the Inspector to carry out the verification and stamping and collect the fees

Office of the Assistant Commissioner of Excise

Established in 1957, this office superintends the work of excise staff posted at Jabalpur, Mandla, Seoni, Chhindwara, Balaghat, Sagar, Damoh, Raipur, Durg and Bastar districts. It is headed by an Assistant Commissioner of Excise who is posted at Jabalpur and assisted by a Reader of the rank of Excise Sub-Inspector.

Office of the Assistant Examiner of Local Fund Accounts

Started in October 1957, this is one of the five regional offices situated in Madhya Pradesh. The duty assigned to it is to conduct statutory audit of all local bodies in Jabalpur revenue division. It has, besides one Assistant Examiner of Local Funds, the sanctioned strength of six Senior Auditors and 12 Junior Auditors who constitute six audit parties with headquarters at Jabalpur, Sagar, Damoh,

Chhindwara and Balaghat. The Assistant Examiner of Local Fund Accounts works under the control of the Examiner of Local Fund Accounts, Gwalior.

District Publicity Office

The main function of this office is to publicise the activities of the State Government through various media including Press, Cinema. Song and Drama, and Exhibition. This office works as a liaison agency between the Government and the people, maintains close contact with the local press and arranges press coverage of activities of all Government departments. Besides, this office arranges free film-shows for the benefit of general public. The films exhibited are documentaries on the nation-building activities relating to agriculture, industry, health, rural development, etc. Exhibitions are also arranged to publicise the progress made during the Five Year Plans An Information Centre is also maintained where newspapers, magazines and reference books are kept. The staff consists of a District Publicity Officer, two Public Relations Assistants and one Field Publicity Assistant.

Office of the District Statistical Officer

This office was created on March 18, 1957, to improve the coverage, accuracy and quality of the statistical data at district level. The District Statistical Officer conducts economic surveys from time to time and is responsible for the preparation of the Annual District Statistical Abstracts, Pocket Compendiums, Monthly Reviews, Annual Progress Report of the Five Year Plans in the District and Quarterly Progress Reports of the Development Blocks. In his work the District Statistical Officer is assisted by one District Statistical Assistant.

Since July 1961, the jurisdiction of this office is extended to Narsimhapur district too.

A National Sample Survey Programme was launched by the Government of India in this region, for the collection of socio-economic and crop-survey data. The State Government is collaborating in this scheme through the District Statistical Office. This survey unit was at first located at Seoni, from where it was shifted to Jabalpur in November 1960, only to be moved to Chhindwara in July 1964.

Office of the District Welfare and Panchayat Officer

Since April 1962, the former District Welfare Officer has been designated as the District Welfare and Panchayat Officer. He is

working under the departmental control of the Divisional Panchayat and Welfare Officer, Jabalpur, who supervises the work of all district offices in Jabalpur division. He is charged with the supervision of Gram and Nyaya Panchayats in the District and is also responsible for the progress of Social Welfare and Social Education schemes in the District. For the execution of Panchayat work, he is assisted by 13 Panchayat Extension Officers, six Sub-Auditors and 94 Village Assistants Besides, a team of 26 Social Education Organisers assist him in the sphere of social education.

Among the social welfare activities, mention may be made of the pilot projects started at Jabalpur, *viz*., a Reception Centre, a Destitute Women's Home, a Home for the handicapped children and a State Home for ex-prisoners. The department also gives grants-in-aid to certain social and cultural organisations.

Geology and Mining Regional Office

This office was established at Jabalpur in 1958, when it was shifted from Nagpur. It is under the control of a qualified Geologist who is assisted by an Assistant Geologist and a Drilling Superintendent for carrying out prospecting of minerals in the division He also gives technical advice to all Collectors in Jabalpur division in mineral administration For the purpose of collecting statistical information on mines and minerals, a Statistical Assistant is working under him.

CENTRAL GOVERNMENT OFFICES

There are a number of Central Government offices located at Jabalpur. The administrative set-up of some of the important offices is briefly given below.

Central Excise

The office of the Assistant Collector, Central Excise, Jabalpur Division, was established in 1953. The Jabalpur Division, with headquarters at Jabalpur, comprises four circles, *viz.*, Jabalpur. Satna, Sagar and Gwalior. Each circle has a number of districts under its jurisdiction and is headed by a Superintendent of Central Excise.

The Superintendent, Central Excise, Jabalpur Circle, Jabalpur, is entrusted with the collection of excise duties within the districts of Mandla, Chhindwara, Narsimhapur, Seoni and Jabalpur, excluding Katni tahsil which is under the jurisdiction of Satna circle. He is assisted by two Deputy Superintendents, 12 Inspectors, six Sub-

Inspectors and 16 Sepoys. There is an additional Inspector incharge of Sihora Section.

Income Tax

The Jabalpur Income Tax Circle, comprising Jabalpur, Mandla and Narsimhapur districts, is staffed by five Income Tax Officers. In addition, there is a Special Investigation Circle, Jabalpur, headed by an Income Tax Officer who examines special cases assigned to him. The appeals of Income Tax circles of Jabalpur, Sagar, Satna, Bhopal, Itarsi and Khandwa are decided by the Appellate Assistant Commissioner of Income Tax, Jabalpur.

Jabalpur is also the headquarters of the Jabalpur Range of Inspecting Assistant Commissioner of Income Tax. The jurisdiction of this office extends to all Income Tax Officers at Jabalpur, Satna, Sagar, Bhopal, Itarsi, Khandwa and Chhindwara. A Special Survey Circle has recently been created to rope in new cases. It is in charge of an Income Tax Officer.

Office of the Field Publicity Organiser

Established in May 1955, it is in charge of a Publicity Organiser. assisted by an ancillary staff It seeks to publicise Five Year Plans through all available media, such as film shows, dramas, public meetings poets' gatherings, group discussions, etc.

This office is working under the Regional Officer in the Directorate of Field Publicity under the Ministry of Information and Broadcasting, Government of India, Bhopal.

Office of the Regional Labour Commissioner

This office is headed by the Regional Labour Commissioner who looks after the implementation of various welfare schemes in the Central Government undertakings located in the States of Madhya Pradesh and Rajasthan. He is also responsible for the industrial peace and the enforcement of Labour Laws. The staff comprises two Conciliation Officers, 14 Labour Inspectors and one Junior Labour Inspector. Some of these officers held concurrent jurisdiction in both the states.

Office of the Divisional Superintendent, Central Railways

Jabalpur is the headquarters of the Jabalpur Division of the Central Railways. Its jurisdiction extends from Itarsi (excluding) to Naini (excluding) on the Itarsi—Allahabad main line and from

Bina (excluding) to new Katni Junction (including) on the Bina—Bilaspur line There are 96 railway stations in the division out of which 22 are in the District of Jabalpur. The Jabalpur division is headed by a Divisional Superintendent in the administrative circle. He is assisted by nine senior scale and 14 junior scale officers of various categories. The 22 railway stations in Jabalpur District are managed by Station Masters of different grades. Jabalpur, being the largest station in the division, is incharge of a Station Superintendent. In all, there are about 16,500 railway employees working under the Divisional Superintendent of Jabalpur division.

Office of the Senior Superintendent of Post Offices

This office is responsible for the supervision of all post, telegraph and public-call offices (except Central and Departmental Telegraph offices) located in the districts of Jabalpur, Mandla and Balaghat. The Senior Superintendent who works under the control of the Post-Master General, Central Circle, Nagpur, is assisted by one Assistant Superintendent, one Complaints Inspector and six Inspectors of Post Offices. Of the latter, one each is working at Balaghat, Mandla, Nainpur, Jabalpur Sub-Division, Katni and Jabalpur proper.

Office of the Additional Chief Engineer, Post and Telegraph

It started functioning from 1950. The main functions comprise installation and expansion of trunk lines in specified areas. It is managed by the Additional Chief Engineer, Technical and Development Circle, Jabalpur. He is assisted by one Director of Telegraphs, five Divisional Engineers and 24 Assistant Engineers.

Office of the Divisional Engineer, Telegraphs

Established in 1953, it looks after the telegraph lines along the rail track from Jabalpur to Bhusawal (excluding), from Bina to Nagpur (including Bina and excluding Nagpur), from Jabalpur to Gondia, from Jabalpur to Nagpur *via* Chhindwara, from Bina to Anuppur *via* Katni and from Jabalpur to Manikpur. Besides, it also looks after the lines on the Satna-Rewa-Jaiwan, Waidhan and Satna-Chhatarpur-Nowgong roads. It looks after the maintenance and expansion of telegraph and telephone systems in this area subject to the control of the Post-Master General, Central Circle Nagpur. In the discharge of his duties, he is assisted by five Sub-Divisional Officers, 25 Engineering Supervisors and a team of other ancillary staff of Monitors, Telephone Operators, Line Inspectors, etc.

Office of the Superintendent, Central Telegraph

It deals with the operative work relating to telegrams in Jabalpur city. It is headed by a Superintendent who is assisted by seven Telegraph Masters, two Instructors, 21 Telegraphists and 30 Telegraph men. The administrative control is exercised by the Post-Mastar General, Central Circle, Nagpur.

Office of the Controller of Telegraphs, Jabalpur Division

This office was set up in 1942 with a view to dealing with the procurement, stocking and distribution of tele-communication material throughout the country. It is manned by one Controller and one Assistant Engineer (Stores) under the administrative control of the Director-General, Post and Telegraphs, New Delhi.

Office of the Project Evaluation Officer

Established in 1960, it is a unit of the Programme Evaluation Organisation of the Planning Commission, its territorial jurisdiction extending over Jabalpur and Rewa revenue divisions. It is one of the four offices in Madhya Pradesh to evaluate the progress made by Community Development schemes It also conducts researches relating to the problems of primary education, utilization of rural man-power, manures and fertilizers in selected areas.

Office of the Deputy Chief Lac Development Officer

This office is a branch of the office of the Chief Lac Development Officer, Ranchi and works under the Indian Lac Cess Committee which is under the administrative control of the Indian Council of Agricultural Researches in the Ministry of Food and Agriculture, New Delhi. It is headed by the Deputy Chief Lac Development Officer whose jurisdiction extends over the states of Madhya Pradesh. Rajasthan, Gujarat, Maharashtra and Andhra Pradesh. He is responsible for the promotion of improved methods of cultivation and manufacture of lac by means of scientific researches. Under him there are two Lac Inspectors posted at Bilaspur and Gondia, respectively. Seven Lac Supervisors are incharge of the Nucleus Broodlac Farms located at Baruka in Raipur district, Padakar, Bhaisamurra and Chandrapur in Bilaspur district, Umaria in Shahdol district, Bagratawa in Hoshangabad district and Sondar in Maharashtra State

Office of the Central Regional Station, Zoological Survey of India

This was established in 1960 with a view to carrying out faunistic survey in Madhya Pradesh and the adjoining parts of Maharashtra,

It is working under the aegis of the Zoological Survey of India, Calcutta, and conducts researches on different groups of animals with special reference to systematic Zoology, Animal Ecology and Zoogeography. It also maintains a Museum and entertains enquires regarding the fauna of this region At present the scientific and technical staff include a Zoologist, an Assistant Zoologist, a Senior Zoological Assistant, one Zoological Assistant, a Taxidermist and other subordinate staff

Office of the Superintendent, Special Police Establishment

Started in 1941-42, this office is responsible for the detection and prosecution of corruption and other anti-social cases amongst the Central Government Officers in Madhya Pradesh. It is headed by a Superintendent of Police who is assisted by two Deputy Superintendents, 11 Inspectors, three Sub-Inspectors, two Assistant Sub-Inspectors, etc. There are, in addition, a Senior Public Prosecutor, two Public Prosecutors and an Assistant Public Prosecutor attached to it. The case work is disposed of by three Magistrates, one each at Jabalpur, Indore and Satna and two Special Judges who hold their courts at Jabalpur and Indore.

Recruiting Office

In order to recruit personnel to the various trades in Army and Navy, a Recruiting Office is functioning at Jabalpur. It is headed by a Recruiting Officer, who is assisted by two Assistant Recruiting Officers.

The jurisdiction of the office extends to the twelve districts of Jabalpur, Damoh, Rewa Chhindwara, Balaghat, Satna, Mandla, Seoni, Panna, Sagar, Narsimhapur and Chhatarpur. Recruitment teams go on intermittent tours to these districts to enlist personnel. Wide publicity is given to their tour programme so that intending candidates might appear before the Board.

CHAPTER XI

REVENUE ADMINISTRATION

The pattern of land revenue administration, as has emerged in the Jabalpur District, owes its origin to the British. Under the rule of the Gonds and the Marathas, there were no fixed principles for the assessment and realization of revenue nor were any kind of rights in land recognised. Under the Gonds, the District, which was covered with dense jungles, was mostly parcelled out into many petty chiefships, each held by one of the headmen of the clan, who furnished little or no revenue in money and rendered military services to the ruler, whenever called upon to do so[1] The other tenures, besides these of the feudal chiefs were rent-free grants. During the latter period of the Gond rule, however, the ruler himself retained large portions of the territory, which were generally managed by leases, at first directly granted to the actual cultivators, and later through a middleman, known as the malguzar. When the leases were granted through the intervention of the malguzar, the cultivators were displaced at pleasure as and when the interests of the State or the caprice of the local authorities dictated.[2] The assessment of the leased areas was based on the extent of the ascertained cultivated lands of villages, rated at a fixed amount for every standard land measure, called the *tusi*. Although the size of the *tusi* varied at times, a standard *tusi* was equal to 10 acres or four khandis of land. During the Gond rule, for each cultivated *tusi* a rent ranging from Rs 12 to Rs. 15 was demanded by the Government at which rate the malguzar collected the rents from the cultivators and paid into the treasury, receiving for his trouble and risk a suitable provision in rent-free service or *Jagir* lands.[3]

The revenue system under the Marathas was no better. The size of the *tusi* fluctuated under their rule. During the Sagar rule, its size was increased (to seven khandis) and the rent fixed for each *tusi* was Rs. 30. The size was reduced to five *khandis* in the time of the Bhonslas when the rent was reduced to Rs. 25 per *tusi*.[4] Under the Maratha Government of Sagar and Nagpur the system of farming villages to middlemen or Patels, and of *taluqs* and *tappas* to influential or monied members of the community (known as

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1. Jubbulpore District Gazetteer, 1909, p. 55.
2. Jubbulpore Settlement Report, 1912, p. 27.
3. *Ibid*, 1869, pp. 6-7.
4. *Ibid*, p. 49.

taluqdars, was more generally introduced.[1] These *taluqdars* were assigned certain territories around the boundaries of the District so as to form a security cordon, but, in order to court their good-will, little or no revenue was exacted from them, as the Sagar Government was a weak one.[2] The *taluqdars* in their detailed village settlements did not limit their demand till the close of the year and regulated it in an arbitrary manner, their revenue-collecting agents doing their utmost to raise money by all means, fair or foul.[3] The attitude of the Bhonsla Government, which considerably developed the system of farming villages to middlemen was also directed merely to the extortion of as much money as possible. The leases were granted for very short periods and on very high rents, sometimes amounting to more than the village assets.[4] The measurements were, however, extremely imperfect and the data for assessment very rough. Rents were in nearly all cases fixed by the Patels on no settled principles, the rent of each field being determined without reference to its area, however ascertained.[5] Further, it was optional for the Government to continue to lease a village to the same lessee or not, and more often than not leases taken at the beginning of the year were set aside in favour of higher bidders. The cultivator had no recognised rights, with the result that he had to pay according to the lessee's wishes and was thereby reduced to a state of depression. This, coupled with the inroads of the Gond marauders and the Pindaris, turned large tracts in utter desolation and impoverished the District. But the measure which contributed most largely towards this result was the levy of rents before the crops could be harvested and sold. Rents were recovered in three instalments, first *Saoni* in July, second *Aghni* in October and the third *Cheti* in February, and this made borrowing invariably necessary in every village. In consequence, a cultivator had to give over the whole produce of his field in lieu of the amount borrowed by him for payment of the exorbitant rent and its interest, and had again to borrow for his food, thus becoming a bond salve of the money-lender.[6] Inspite of these conditions, the revenue demand and collections continued to rise. This can be shown from the fragmentary evidence of the pargana of Garha comprising 460 villages. The revenue collections which amounted to Rs. 1.47 lakhs in 1796 at the time of its acquisition by the Bhonslas rose to Rs. 2.50 lakhs in 1804, Rs. 2.64 lakhs in 1806 and Rs. 2.25 lakhs in 1808.

1. *Ibid,* p. 66.
2. *Ibid,* 1912, p. 27.
3. Jubbulpore District Gazetteer, 1909, p 282.
4. Jubbulpore Settlement Report, 1896, p. 26, *Ibid,* 1912, p. 27.
5. Jubbulpore District Gazetteer, p. 282.
6. Jubbulpore Settlement Reports, 1896, p. 26 and 1912 p. 27.

The early British rule witnessed a series of summary and short-term settlements which followed the Maratha precedent of high demands and short collections. The first settlement was made in 1818 for a year when the demand of the District was fixed at Rs. 4,17,375. This was followed by three quinquennial settlements, their periods and demand being as below :[1]

Period of Settlement	Demand Rs.
1820-24	4,48,169
1825-29	6,41,007
1830-34	6,05,014

These settlements were made with the Patels or managing farmers, the chief test of their continuance being the payment of the revenue demand In respect to measurements, the settlements were partial, extending only to the cultivated lands, the rest being filled in by guess. No attempt appears to have been made at measurements during the second and third quinquennial settlements[2] Nor was there any fixed system of survey in these settlements. For purposes of assessment, the soils were classified into eight varieties, their names being *mund, kabar, goobra, hurkabur, domatta or doodhea-sahra, tambur, pundwa* and *Patarua*.[3] These names were given by Fraser in the second quinquennial Settlement. During the first British settlement for every standard *tusi* of land (four *khandis*) of the best *rabi* yielding quality, at first Rs. 22 and later Rs. 20 were demanded as rent while for inferior lands the rate ranged between Rs. 10 and Rs. 12.[4] Some other inferior lands paid as little as Rs. 6 except in the hilly tracts where the assessment was not made after this manner. The first Settlement of 1820-1824, worked satisfactorily. But under the later two Settlements, those of 1824-29 and 1830-34, the land revenue fixed pressed heavily and remissions had to be made in both the cases. The closing period of the third settlement, in particular, was characterized by severe crop failures and great scarcity, which reduced the cultivating classes to a state of grave indebtedness.[5] As a result, a number of changes took place in the patelship, the old incumbent being sometimes replaced by a Marwari speculator, his creditor, who would either have his money or the lease of his village. These conditions prompted the Supreme Government to send Robert Mertinns Bird, known as the father of

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1. *Ibid,* 1896, pp. 26-27.
2. *Ibid,* 1869, p. 27.
3. For a detailed description of these soils see Jubbulpore Settlement Report, 1869, pp. 30-31.
4. *Ibid,* pp. 5 and 7.
1. *Ibid,* 1912, pp. 28-31,

Land Settlements in Northern India and Member of the Board of Revenue of the then North Western Provinces for an enquiry into the revenue management of the Saugor Nerbudda Territories, of which Jabalpur District was then a part. He submitted a vigorous report on the unhapyy state of these territories brought about by persistent attempts "to prop up by temporory expedients a revenue confessedly excessive."

On Bird's recommendations for a policy of moderate assessment and long-term settlements. Jabalpur District was settled for 20 years in 1834-35, when the rental assets were estimated at Rs. 10,58,492, out of which the demand was fixed at Rs. 4,75,760. The Twenty Years' Settlement which became operative in 1835-36 worked well during the full period of its term and was described as the best Settlement of those days.[1] This settlement was effected with the Patels who were in possession of villages and were not to be displaced without the sanction of the Revenue Board—a step which was taken to protect a Patel against the cancellation of his lease. Even at this settlement there was no fixed system of survey. There were no maps.[2] The eight-fold soil classification was abandoned, it being considered too minute, and instead only four classes of soil were adopted, *viz., kabar* or first class, *mund* or second class, *patarua* or third class and *ratua* (sandy) or fourth class.[3]

The term of the twenty-year settlement having expired in 1854-55, operations for a revision of the settlement was commenced. They were, however, interrupted, owing chiefly to the out-break of the Great Revolt and it was only in 1862 that they were brought to a conclusion. In 1865 the Bijairaghogarh pargana was added to the District The settlement operations were extended to this pargana also and were completed in 1867.

This Settlement constitutes an outstanding landmark in the history of land revenue administration on account of the conferment of proprietary rights on the Patels with whom settlements had been made in the past. Accordingly, out of 2,535 villages in the District previous lessees in as many as 2,080 villages acquired proprietary rights.[4]

Another important change introduced at this Settlement was that the demand of the State upon the new proprietors was limited

1. *Ibid,* 1869, p. 69.
2. *Ibid,* 1896, p. 27.
3. *Ibid,* 1869, pp. 31-32 and p. 80.
4. *Ibid,* p. 69.

to one-half of the average net assets instead of two-thirds as before. The method for assessment and survey was also improved, as it was essential that the area and position of the villages and holdings involved in the grant of rights of ownership should be ascertained and recorded in the best manner practicable. For purposes of classification of soil, the cultivated area, (which was about 32 per cent of the total area of the District) was classified into two main divisions, *viz.*, (1) *Bundwas* or lands which were embanked in such a manner as to retain the rain-water until the approoch of the sowing season, and (2) *Tagurs* or lands which were not embanked. In addition, the four-fold classification of the soil, adopted at the previous Settlement, was followed where a more minute specification became necessary It was found that 24 per cent was first class soil, 32½ per cent second class, about 36 per cent third class and a little more than seven per cent fourth class soil.[1] Again, the rental assets of a village were calculated by valuing the land at a certain rate per acre according to the quality of the soil. The average rate for each class of soil was the determining factor for the calculation of rental assets (*nikasi*), and formed the basis of assessment. The new demand of a group of villages (where soil conditions were fairly equal) was determined by these soil rates and then this total was redistributed over the several villages in that group. One half of the rental assets so arrived at was assessed as a fair revenue for the Government to demand. The Settlement Officer tested these rental calculations by checks based on produce and ploughs and also by comparing them, as far as possible, with the actual rent paid at that time by the tenants.[2] The total assets of the District in this way were estimated at Rs 12,20,487 out of which the revenue demand was fixed at Rs. 6,05,404 (about 50 per cent) including Rs. 59,983 for the Bijairaghogarh pargana. In terms of average rates per acre, the rates on malguzari area and on cultivation were Rs. 0-5-8 and Rs. 0-10-11, respectively, as against Rs. 0-4-10 and Rs. 0-9-4 in the previous settlement.[3] The cost of the Settlement was estimated at Rs. 3,50,000. The term of the Settlement in the case of the Bijairaghogarh pargana was fixed at 20 years from July 1867 while that for the rest of the District, it was fixed at 30 years from July 1863.

Hardly had this Settlement run for a few years when the famine of 1868-69 broke out. Its impact was felt by the Bijairaghogarh pargana in particular so much so that the assessment did not work well there and even by 1873-74, out of its 274 villages, 86 were unable to shake off its effects.

At the next re-settlement of the District the system of survey was further refined. Plotting of field details was effected by specially

1. *Ibid*, pp. 4-5.
2. *Ibid*, 1896, pp. 29—30.
3. *Ibid*, 1869, p. 6 and p. 9.

trained Patwaris on traverse plots supplied by a professional survey party, which conducted a survey of village lands. In 1887-88, the District was formally brought under settlement. By this time the District had advanced in wealth and prosperity. Cultivation had increased by 35 per cent, the rent-roll of the District had advanced from Rs. 8,86,000 to Rs. 13,08,000 and the wholesale prices of the chief staples had risen from 100 to 200 per cent.[1] Under the system of assessment adopted at this Settlement rents were revised and proprietary lands were valued under the soil-unit system, and on the assets thus arrived at, with the addition of *siwai* income or miscellaneous revenue, the revised assessments were framed.[2] Unlike the previous Settlement when the fixation of rent was a matter between the malguzar and the tenent, at this Settlement the Settlement Officer himself was required to fix the rent payable by each tenant. Moreover, whereas at the last Settlement the revenue was commonly fixed with reference to prospective assets. at this Settlement the revenue was fixed on the amount of actual assets determined at that time.[3] With this end in view, the system of soil classification was also elaborated Now attention was paid not only to the colour and appaient qualities of the soils but also to their productiveness and to special facts which added to or detracted from their value. The different soils which were recognised were : *kabar, mund, domatta, sahra, patarua, bhatua and barra.*[4]

The system of fixing the tenants' rental was also changed. Each village was considered separately for the determination of rates. These village rates were determined on the basis of unit incidence calculated from the area and the then existing rental by the assistance of the soil factors. The rent payable by each tenant was calculated by these rates and thus the assets were built upon which the assessment of a village was based.[5] The total assets for the District were estimated at Rs. 19, 67, 893 out of which the demand was fixed at 10,01,059 The new demand represented an increase of Rs. 3,92,799 or 64 6 per cent of that previously paid. The acreage-rate of the demand on cultivation came to Rs. 0-11-11, being Rs. 0-1-7 per acre or 15 per cent in excess of the incidence at the last settlement which was Rs. 0-10-4.[6] The tahsilwise demand is shown in the table below[7]:—

Tahsil	Former Revenue (Rs.)	Revised Revenue (Rs.)	Percentage of Increase	Percentage of Assets Taken as Revenue
Jabalpur	3,2 ',908	5,33,710	+65	51
Sihora	1,(,3,124	3,33,296	—72	51
Murwara	92,228	1,34,053	—45	51
Whole District ..	6,08,260	10,01,059	64	51

1. *Ibid*, 1896, S. C.'s review, p. 4.
2. *Ibid*, p. 6.
3. *Ibid*, pp. 30—31.
4. *Ibid*, p. 6.
5. *Ibid*, pp. 30—31.
6. *Ibid*, p. 43.
7. *Ibid*, S. C's, review, pp. 11—12.

The position of the total rental of the District at different periods was as follows :—

At the commencement of 30 years' settlement	Rs. 8,86,393.
At the close of 30 years' settlement	Rs. 13,08,386.
After revision	Rs. 13,59,828.

The incidence per acre of the revised rental for the whole District was found to be Rs. 1-3-8 while in individual groups the incidence ranged between Rs. 3-12-1 in the richest group (Patan) and Rs. 0-3-1 in the poorest group (Kundam).[1]

The new settlement came into force on 1st July, 1891 in the old Bijairaghogarh pargana, and on 1st July, 1894 in one group of Murwara tahsil and four groups of Jabalpur tahsil. In the rest of the District, it came into force on 1st July, 1893. It was to run in different areas for different periods, varying from 11 to 14 years, so as to be due for a revision in the entire District by June, 1905.[2]

Coming to the cost of the Settlement, excluding the outlay on the preliminary traverse, the total expenditure on the cadastral survey and Settlement of the District amounted to Rs. 2,93,567, giving a rate of Rs. 82 per square mile of the malguzari area. The cost of traverse survey operations was estimated at Rs. 31 per square mile, thus raising the total cost of Settlement operations to Rs 113 per square mile, Rs. 0-2-10 per acre.[3]

Two leading features of this Settlement deserve mention here. The first was the commutation in the former Bijairaghogarh pargana of rents paid in kind (known as *bhag*) into cash rents. The practice of levying rents in kind was of a very long standing in this tract. The general custom was for the landlord to take a share ranging from a fifth to a third of the produce according to the ryots' caste or status or the power of the malguzar to extort. The assessment was made in two different modes, known as *kankut* and *agara*. In the former, the amount of the landlord's share was fixed by arbitration (panchayat) by the spot inspection of the crop and was made over to him when the grain was ready or its price was paid. Under the latter the crop was threshed and winnowed under the landlord's supervision, his share being divided by measurement. Both the system operated against the tenant in many ways. Eventually, the *bhag* system became so oppressive that when the settlement operations commenced

1. *Ibid*, S. C's. review, p. 9.
2. *Ibid*, p. 13, and pp. 48—49.
3. *Ibid*, p. 49.

in 1888, a number of tenants claimed commutation of grain payments as provided in the Tenancy Act and accordingly the Settlement Officer fixed the rents of all tenants in occupation into cash.[1]

The second leading feature of the Settlement, though of comparatively less importance, was the reduction of exhorbitant rents of ordinary tenants in some cases It was noticed that during the boom period preceding the settlement operations in the rich groups of the *haveli* and the tracts adjacent to them, competition among tenants and capacity on the part of certain types of landlords raised the rents of their tenants to a very competitive pitch and the necessity for their reduction was felt by the Settlement Officer while framing his assessment proposals. In the absence of any legal power to reduce excessive rents, the Settlement Officer was able to persuade some landlords to consent to a reduction. In the result, although a large number of dangerously high rents were left untouched, a sum of Rs. 37,700 was knocked off the ordinary rental, which gave relief to 6,433 holdings scattered over 882 villages.[2] The amount of arrears remitted on the basis of these reductions amounted to Rs. 18,479.

It has now to be seen how the Settlement actually worked. No sooner had the revised rents and revenue come into force, than commenced a series of misfortunes in the District. The District was dogged by severe crop-failures beginning from 1893 occasioned by excess of deficiency of rainfall, culminating in the devastating famines of 1897 and 1899. The cropped area in the whole District in 1898-99 fell by 11·2 per cent in comparison to that at Settlement, this percentage increasing to 24 per cent in the Kundam and Bargi circles *i.e.*, the hilly portion of Jabalpur tahsil. The crop out-turns were also low, dropping to 25 per cent of the normal in some tracts In consequence, rents fell into arrears, seed became scarce and debts accumulated.[3] In other words, the new Settlement with its enhanced revenue demand became impossible and relief measures became necessary. Suspensions and remissions of rents and revenue proving inadequate, temporary abatements and some substantial reductions for the term of Settlement were later sanctioned. The famine of 1899, however, necessitated the taking of further steps for preventing the Settlement from breaking down altogether As a result, a scheme was introduced under which a revenue reduction of more than half a lakh of rupees was made in 618 villages, where the revised revenue exceeded the former revenue by more than 46 per cent. The final result of all these measures was the reduction of rents and

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1 *Ibid*, p. 35.
2. *Ibid*, S. C's Review, p. 8.
3 *Ibid*, S. C's. review. pp. 8-16.

revenue for the term of Settlement in more than half the villages of two (Jabalpur and Patan) tahsils. In Murwara tahsil, however, the settlement rents and revenue were maintained.[1] The financial effect of these abatements was that the rental demand of Rs. 13,59,828 fixed for the District at the settlement, fell to Rs. 11,65,032 by 1906, when the resettlement began.[2]

The relief measures which were carried out in summary proceedings and the abatements which were based on cropping calculations of a temporary value left the tenants' rents in most uneven state. Thus not only was the Settlement wrecked by bad seasons but even its fabric was ripped up by schemes of revision which succeeded it.

It was largely to remedy this state of affairs the inequalities and confusion in assessment—that the next resettlement operations were undertaken in District in 1906. To use the words of the then Chief Commissioner, the Settlement was undertaken "for administrative reasons". By the time the Settlement began, the District had sufficiently recovered from the famines of 1896-97 and 1899-1900. An idea about the extent of recovery can be had from the fact that the cropped area on attestation (in 1907-08) was found to be only one per cent less than the cropped area of the previous Settlement.[3] The prices of agricultural produce also registered an average increase of 33 per cent over those of the Settlement.[4] The Settlement operations concluded in 1911-12.

On this occasion soils were classed field by field, according to their position, their physical properties and their crop capacity. The most important distinction was between embanked and unembanked land and three classes of embankments were recognised in wheat land, *viz.*, *narbandh*, *bandhwa*, and *tagar bandhia* In all 35 per cent of the total classified area fell into these three divisions and 42 per cent was classified as wheat land. Rice accounted for only seven per cent of the classified area while the remaining 51 per cent fell into the inferior class.[5] The soil classification devised at the preceding Settlement was further amplified, the system comprising 10 forms, *viz.*, *kabar I*, *kabar II*, *mund I*, *mund II*, *domatta*, *sehra*, *patarua*, *bhatua*, *barra* and *kachhar*.[6]

1. *Ibid*, 1912, p. 31.
2. *Ibid*, S. C's review, p. 1.
3. *Ibid*, p. 2.
4. *Ibid*, p. 1.
5. *Ibid*.
6. For detailed description see Jubbulpore Settlement Report, 1912, pp. 3—5.

A distinguishing feature of this Settlement was the careful classification of each tenant according to his means and position. Rental arrears, debts, the nature of the land held, the number of cattle, ploughs and carts owned—all these were ascertained and taken into consideration before each rent was fixed. Every tenant was placed in one of the five grades: briefly, if he was a wealthy man (such as, a well-to-do landlord or a merchant or a rich money-lender) he was classified 'A'; if he was a substantial tenant, in circumstance and resources above average, he was classed 'B': if in straitened and difficult circumstances 'D'; and if absolutely broken down and living hand to mouth or if a mere labourer, he was classed 'E'. The table below summarizes the classification of the tenantry by grades as made at this Settlement.[1]

(In percentage)

Tahsil/Grade	A	B	C	D	E
Jabalpur	2	10	44	14	30
Sihora	2	16	47	28	7
Murwara	4	29	45	17	5
Patan	2	12	43	33	10
Total for the District ..	3	18	45	22	12

Similarly, in fixing village rates, due weight was given to the resources of and progress made by villages since the last Settlement. Accordingly, they were classified into five grades.[2] As a result of rent revision the rental demand of the District for the tenants was fixed at Rs 13,87,510 or Rs. 27.682 above the demand as fixed at the previous Settlement (an increase of 19 per cent).[3] This gave a rate of Rs 1-4-7 per acre compared to Rs. 1-3-8 at the last Settlement.

The gross revised assets (inclusive of the tenants' rental of Rs. 13,87,510 were estimated at Rs 21,33,833 as against Rs. 19,67,894 at the preceding Settlement, an increase of eight per cent. Out of these, a sum of Rs. 10,99,683 was assessed as the revised revenue of the District, representing an increase of 10 per cent over the revenue fixed at the last Settlement. The revenue was fixed at 50 per cent of the malguzari assets. The incidence of the revenue came to Rs. 0-13-11 per cultivated acre as against Rs. 0-12-0 at last Settlement.[4]

1. *Ibid*, p. 20.
2. *Ibid*, p. 35
3. *Ibid*, p. 39
4. *Ibid*, p. 51

The table below gives the tahsil-wise comparison of the assessment of revenue at this and the previous Settlement.[1]

Tahsil	At previous Settlement	Before Revision	As announced at New Settlement	Increase percent of Col. 4 over Col. 2	Increase per cent of Col. 4 over Col. 3
	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.		
Jabalpur ..	2,30,999	2,09,051	2,67,394	14	28
Sihora ..	3,33,296	3,04,915	3,50,369	5	15
Murwara ..	1,34,053	1,34,248	1,66,875	24	24
Patan ..	3,02,711	2,76,233	3,15,045	4	14
Total ..	10,01,059	9,24,447	10,99,683	10	19

The term of the Settlement was fixed at 20 years to commence from 1st July 1909 in Murwara tahsil, from 1st July 1910 in Sihora tahsil and from 1st July 1911 in Patan and Jabalpur tahsils. The cost of the Settlement was estimated at Rs. 3,37,610 or Rs 94-12-11 per sq. miles.

As a preliminary to the next settlement operations, a forecast was prepared in 1927, but the resettlement was postponed for time to time due first to a deterioration in the economic conditions of the agriculturists resulting from the recession of the 'thirties (from 1926 to 1941-42) and next to the outbreak of the Second World War.[2] The condition of the agriculturists had so much deteriorated in the 'thirties that there was a fall in the collections of rent and revenue and, therefore, in 1934 proceedings for the abatement or reduction of rents and revenue were under taken in the comparatively more highly assessed areas of the District. The net result of these proceedings which were completed in 1935 was that, a total sum of Rs. 47,776 in revenue was reduced and abated (of this Rs. 5,988 being reduced and abated permanently)

The question of resettling the District was again taken up in the 'fifties and with this end in view a Forecast Officer was appointed in 1952-53. Although this Officer recommended a resettlement of the District, the Settlement was again put off. This position has continued to the present with the result that land revenue is being paid at the rates fixed at the Settlement of 1906-12. But lands

1. *Ibid*, p. 43.
2. Forecast Report on the Resettlement of Jabalpur district, 1953, p. 1.

which were not assessed at this Settlement can be assessed by the Collector in accordance with the provisions in the Land Revenue Code.

It has been stated earlier that proprietary rights were conferred in the bulk of the villages in the District at the Settlement of 1862-67. These rights were sometimes sub-divided among co-sharers, the principal being later known as Sadar Lambardar (Sadar Malguzar) and the co-sharers as Lambardars (Malguzars). The responsibility for the payment of land revenue and cesses for the village rested on the Sadar Lambardar in case the properietary rights were vested in more than one person and in other cases on the Lambardar. He collected rents from the tenants of the village and paid the Government demand.

The proprietor used to hold a part of the village land as his home-farm, but under the law this could not exceed one-fourth of the area of the village. The home-farm land was divided into two classes, *viz.*, *sir* and *khudkasht* or self-cultivaetd. The percentage of the home-farm areas to the occupied area in the District at the Settlements of 1886-94 and 1906-12 was 16 and 18, respectively.[1] The village forest, waste lands and grazing grounds were also the property of the malguzar, but the tenants of the village continued to exercise their customary rights of free graling and *nistar* obtaining, however, the malguzar's permission before cutting wood These right, known as *nistar* rights, were specified in the wajib-ul-arz (village administration paper) of each village.

The responsibility for the management of village affairs also rested on the malguzar These included the maintenance, etc., of village roads and paths, trijunction stations, boundary and traverse marks situated on the village boundary and the like. The malguzar was olso required to provide for the customary village expenses.[2]

From the 'twenties some difficulties were experienced in the lambardari system Some friction between Sadar Lambardars was noticed in villages having a large number of proprietary shares as the latter failed to pay their share of land revenue promptly. There was also some dispute between them over the settlement of village profits. The result was that the office of the Sadar Lambardar started getting unpopular. This phenomenon became more pronounced in 1947-48 when, following the enforcement of the Revision of Land Revenue of Mahals Act, Sadar Lambardars experienced great difficulty in recovering land revenue from co—sharers and in

1. Jabbulpore Settlement Report, 1912, p. 25.
2. *Ibid*, pp. 116—117.

consequence many of them resigned their offices. The lambardari system, however, ceased to operate from the 31st March 1951 when, following the enactment of the Madhya Pradesh Abolition of Proprietary Rights Act, 1950 (I of 1951), all proprietary rights and interests were vested in the State. This measure, in fact, meant the introduction of the ryotwari system under which the cultivators hold land directly from the State For collecting land revenue and other government dues, Patels were appointed in villages, first by nomination and later by election. By 1958-59, 2,362 permanent and 48 temporary Patels were working in the District Patels are also Mukaddams of their villages. They are paid a commission by the Government for collection of land revenue, etc. The table below shows the amount of commission paid from 1950-51 to 1961-62.

Year		Amount in rupees
1950-51	..	28
1951-52	..	26,523
1952-53	..	2,08,743
1953-54	..	3,56,883
1954-55	..	1,53,162
1955-56	..	1,95,703
1956-57	..	1,86,496
1957-58	..	1,32,338
1958-59	..	88,950
1959-50	..	2,53,889
1960-61	..	1,54,440
1961-62	..	1,23,460

A few Gram Panchayats have also been entrusted with the collection of land revenue, etc., as an experimental measure. At the end of 1962, 81 Gram Panchayats were entrusted with this work.

The land revenue is recovered in two instalments in the District, *i e.*, the first instalment falls due on the 15th January and the second on the 1st May. A month after these dates, a defaulters' list is prepared by the Patwari and is sent to the Tahsildar for recovery.

Muafi Grants.

Certain villages or plots of land were held in the District as revenue-free or on quit rent. The important alienations consisted of revenue-free and quit-rent holdings released in perpetuity for support of temples and shrines and for subsistence of village servants, etc. The position of revenue-free and quit rent holdings at the Settlements of 1862-67 and 1886-94 is given below:—

	Revenue-Free Holdings		Quit-Rent Holdings	
	1862-67	1886-94	1862-67	1886-94
Area (Acres)	78,173	38,097	3,69,709	2,90,576
Revenue (Rs.) .. .	32,861	34,336	39,253	60,404
Quit Rent (Rs.)	..		15,725	36,565*

Revenue Assigned

The revenue assigned to *mafidars* etc, at the Settlement of 1906-12 amounted to Rs. 68,320. These *muafi* grants were discontinued under the Central Provinces and Berar Revocation of Land Revenue Exemptions Act, 1948 (XXXVII of 1948).

Under the same Act religious and charitable institutions at the following three places have been sanctioned annual monetary grants subject to certain conditions:—

Place	Area (Acres)	Amount of Annual Grants (Rs.)
1. Village Bijairaghogarh, Tahsil Murwara	184.65	47
2. Village Tewar, Tahsil Jabalpur .	19 82	54
3. Madan Mahal, Tahsil Jabalpur ..	N.A./Two whole villages of Kunda and Badanpur and plots of Kachpura.	408
Total ..		509

Ryotwari Villages

The ryotwari system was prevalent previously also in the following seven villages of the district :

1. Rampur (Tahsil Jabalpur)
2. Katanga (Tahsil Jabalpur)
3. Mahagawan (Tahsil Jabalpur)
4. Ganga-Sagar (Tahsil Jabalpur)

5. **Deogawan (Tahsil Sihora)**
6. Umarpani (Tahsil Sihora)
7. **Mahagawan (Tahsil Murwara)**

These villages were regularly settled for the first time during the Settlement of 1906-12 when their occupied area was 1,843 acres with an assessment of Rs. 953, the rate per acre being Rs. 0-8-3. A Patel was appointed for each village for collection of revenue on a suitable commission. This position continued until the abolition of the malguzari system when a common pattern of village management was introduced throughout the District.

Income from Land Revenue and Special Cesses Connected with It

The following Table shows the annual demand and collections of land revenue in the District during the period from 1948-49 to 1961-62 :

Year	Demand	Collection
	Rs.	Rs.
1948-49 ..	16,07,221	11,87,493
1949-50 ..	16,28,138	11,67,249
1950-51 . .	19,45,911	11,87,933
1951-52 . .	23,33,271	19,70,792
1952-53	23,27,194	20,90,845
1953-54 .. .	21,55,125	17,39,407
1954-55	22,70,281	19,81,320
1955-56	[illegible]	19,53,116
1956-57 . ..	[illegible]	[illegible]
1957-58	25,80,579	[illegible]
1958-59	30,22,646	[illegible]
1959-60 . ..	27,95,216	20,09,127
1960-61	27,01,815	19,13,982
1961-62 . ..	27,89,118	18,72,473

The demand had increased during 1947-48 due to the enforcement of the C. P. Revision of Land Revenue of Estates Act

1947 (XXV of 1947) which brought an additional revenue of about 4.5 lakhs. The further increase in the demand during 1948-49 was due to the operation of the C. P. and Berar Revocation of Land Revenue Exemptions Act of 1948. The other significant increase was in 1950-51 and onwards which was attributed to the abolition of the malguzari system. The fall in the collections particularly in 1956-57 and 1957-58 was due to crop failures which necessitated large scale suspensions and remissions of land revenue.

Cesses.—Some cesses on land revenue are also levied by the Government. The earliest cess was the Patwari cess which was prescribed at the Settlement of 1862-67 for the maintenance of Patwaris, and was realized from malguzars first at 3.2 per cent (6 pies per rupee) and in 1879 at three per cent on the *nikasi* ascertained in that year. The Patwari cess was, however, abolished in 1906 when the cost of Patwari establishment was taken over by the Government.[1] The following cesses were also levied on the land revenue:—

(i) Postal cess at ½ per cent.

(ii) Road cess at 3 per cent.

(iii) School cess at 2 per cent.

(iv) Additional Rates at 2 per cent.[2]

The position regarding cesses under went a change in 1920 when under the C. P. Local Self-Government Act 1920 (IV of 1920) only a cess at the rate of 6¼ per cent of land revenue for maintenance of schools, roads and for general purposes was levied in the District. Another change took place in 1946 when a Panchayat cess was introduced under the C. P and Berar Panchayats Act 1946 (I of 1947) This cess was payable at the rate of 6 pies per rupee on land revenue and rentals of proprietors and tenants, respectively, (other than sub-tenants) in respect of lands held by them in the Gram Panchayat area and the proceeds were paid to the Gram Panchayat concerned When the District Councils were replaced by Janapada Sabhas in 1948, a Janapada cess was imposed under the C. P. and Berar Local Government Act, 1948 (XXXVIII of 1948) This was calculated at 30 pies per rupee and the proceeds were payable to the Janapada Sabha concerned.

The Panchayat and the Janapada cesses are still levied in the District It may, however, be stated that under the M. P. Panchayats

1. Jubbulpore Settlement Report, 1896, pp 43—44 and 1912, pp. 46—47
2. Jubbulpore District Gazetteer 1909, pp. 302—03.

Act of 1960, a cess at the rate of 10 n.p. per rupee will be levied only at the Panchayat level.

The Table below shows the annual demand and collections of cesses in the District, during the period from 1948-49 to 1961-62:—

Year	Demand	Collection
1948-49	2,01,669	1,85,452
1949-50	2,35,074	2,62,819
1950-51	4,92,608	4,69,582
1951-52	2,82,318	2,51,761
1952-53	2,68,450	2,44,530
1953-54	3,49,657	2,97,378
1954-55	3,70,616	3,21,348
1955-56	N.A.	N.A.
1956-57	3,67,821	2,96,862
1957-58	3,95,352	2,56,705
1958-59	4,64,223	3,35,987
1959-60	4,55,537	3,76,413
1960-61 . ..	4,08,091	3,09,815
1961-62 . .	4,26,745	3,04,408

The increase in the demand during 1947-48 and 1949-50 is due to the imposition of the Panchayat cess and the Janapada cess, respectively.

Miscellaneous Revenue (*Siwai* Income)—As has been stated earlier, while assessing a particular village, its *siwai* income was also included in the assets. Until the abolition of the intermediaries, this income comprised receipts from various miscellaneous sources such as mango groves, tanks growing singhara and mainly from malguzari forests. The Table below shows the amount of *siwai* income included in the assets at the various Settlements[1]

Period of Settlement	Amount Rs.
1862-67	27,212
1886-94	40,124
1906-12	64,109

1. Jubbulpore Settlement Reports 1896, pp 40—41 and 1912, pp. 41—42.

Until about the Settlement of 1906-12, lac, *harra mahua*, grass and grazing, singhara, fuel and timber constituted the main sources of *Siwai* revenue. During the 'thirties and after, the receipts consisted largely of revenue derived from mines and quarries on account of large-scale exploitation of forests, mines, etc

Statistics of *siwai* income are given in the table below:

Year			Amount Rs.
1938-39	..	..	1,16,562
1939-40	..	..	1,21,989
1940-41	..	..	1,35,269
1941-42	..	..	1,61,125
1942-43	..	..	2,01,403
1943-44	..	..	2,10,847
1944-45	..	..	2,37,853
1945-46	..	..	2,51,096
1946-47	..	..	3,01,701
1947-48	..	..	3,17,976

In the post-Indepedence period, particularly after the abolition of the malguzari system, a marked fluctuation is noticed in the *siwai* receipts This is partly due to the absence of an adequate administrative machinery for checking the income bearing resources and partly to the drying up of the various resources such as forest produce, fuel and timber which have been taken over by the Forest Department. The table below gives the figures of demand and collections of miscellaneous land revenue from 1948-49 to 1961-62:

Year			Demand Rs.	Collections Rs.
1948-49	..	..	1,60,108	1,26,219
1949-50	..	..	2,95,006	54,817
1950-51	..	..	4,18,105	3,67,129
1951-52	..	..	4,59,230	3,71,117
1952-53	..	..	1,11,672	[illegible]
1953-54	..	..	99,739	[illegible]
1954-55	..	..	1,13,665	96,030
1955-56	..	..	n.a.	n.a.
1956-57	..		86,467	68,598
1957-58	..		81,445	60,375
1958-59		..	63,980	41,085
1959-60	..	..	88,841	32,097
1960-61	..	..	1,33,246	94,202
1961-62	..	..	86,999	64,471

Relations between Landlords and Tenants

The position of the cultivator under the Gonds and Marathas has been briefly alluded to earlier. Although the legal right of the cultivator to occupancy of his holdings was neither possessed, admitted nor claimed under their rule, some sort of occupancy right was usually conceded.[1] The condition of the cultivators at the time of occupation of the District by the British was described in the following words. The cultivators "scarcely ever pay money rents, that the malguzar takes all the produce and feeds them, furnishes seed and generally bullocks also; they are thus in reality more labourers "[2]

During the early short-term settlement of the British the cultivator enjoyed by custom a right of actual continued occupancy so long as he paid his rent. The position of the cultivator vis-a-vis the malguzar started changing from the Settlement of 1834-35 when, consequent on the inculcation of the tenets of the zamindari school, the malguzar started exercising an increased authority over the cultivators.[3] When at the Settlement of 1862-67 it was decided to confer upon malguzars proprietary rights and when in consequence of which the cultivators' relations with the malguzars were to be those of tenants with landlords, the question of defining the rights and liabilities of the tenantry was also considered. With this end in view it was laid down in the executive instrucions issued to the Settlement Officer in 1854 that all old cultivators (*Kadim kashtkars*) who had been in uninterrupted possession of their holdings since 1840 were to be given full proprietary rights. This class later came to be known as *Malik Makbuzas*. A year later the period of uninterrupted possession to entitle a cultivator to be considered a Kadim Kashtkar was fixed at 12 years. Since these rights had no foundation on statute, the necessity of providing a legal procedure for dealing with cases regarding tenant rights was felt and this was met by extending the Bengal Rent Act (X of 1859) to the Central Provinces from March 1864. The extension of his Act was, however, a mere make-shift arrangement and was adopted only because some sort of Rent Act was needed.

In the light of this position and the subsequent instructions, all cultivators of 12 years continuous standing or upwards, in respect

1. J. F. Dyer, Introduction of the Land Revenue and Settlement System of the Central Province, pp. 47—49.
2. Jubbulpore Settlement Report, 1869, pp. 73.
3. *Ibid*, 1896, P. 4.

of particular lands so occupied, were recorded as *maurusi* or hereditary tenants at the Settlement of 1862-67. Later, certain classes of these hereditary tenants were recorded as possessing absolute rights of occupancy in respect of their holdings, protected by a clause in the *wazib-ul-arz* against any future alteration in the law between landlord and tenant in contradistinction of those whose tenure would be open to revision on the alteration of the law. The total number of occupancy tenants recorded at this Settlement was 24,948 out of which 16,280 were with absolute rights of occupancy while 8,668 were with conditional rights of occupancy. But this did not represent the entire tenantry of the District, for there were as many as 54,076 cultivators who remained, tenants-at-will,[1] a class which was left altogether unprotected because it was laid down that their rents should be left to adjust themselves between the landlord and tenant.

The recognition of occupancy rights was, however, not taken kindly by the landlords who made systematic attempts to prevent tenants from acquiring these rights. The tenants were almost all dependent on the land-owner for their borrowing in grain, a weapon which almost enabled him to drive them out of this tenure. The result was that following the Settlement of 1862-67, there were large-scale transfers of land, both among the landlords and cultivators The ordinary tenants were commonly shifted from field to field every few years in order to bar the accrual of occupancy right to them. Where this could not be accomplished easily, recourse was taken to litigation. This consisted of applications by landlords to courts for assistance in ejecting tenants. Another feature of the litigation was to file suits for ejection for arrears of rent These increased from year to year and what is more interesting is the fact that these were not invariably suits to recover a recognized and admitted rent, but also comprised cases in which an enhancement of rent was made by a notice served on the tenant. Not unnaturally, therefore, the latter disputed his liability to pay more than his former rent or at any rate all the additions which the landlord had made to it.[2] As a result, the number of suits by tenants to contest ouster also increased, thus showing that they were beginning to be tenacious of their rights.

It was soon noticed that the landlords were benefiting unduly at the expense of the cultivator and since Act X of 1859 could not,

1 *Ibid*, 1869, p. 74.

2. C. P. Revenue Administration Report, 1873—74, p. 16.

and was in fact not intended to, protect their rights, action to frame a suitable legislative measure was initiated as long ago as 1878. This eventually led to the enactment of the Tenancy Act (Act IX of 1883) which was brought into force from the 1st January 1884. This Act sought to define for the first time the relations of landlords with tenants and dealt with such important questions as transfer of holdings, enhancement of rent, ejectment of tenants, acquisition of tenancy rights and improvements in holdings. It added a further class that of sub-tenants. Further, the Act converted the tenants-at-will into ordinary tenants with a defined status and protection from arbitrary ejectment. The rent of an ordinary tenant was, however, left to be fixed between him and the landlord. But the ordinary tenant could purchase occupancy rights by payment of 2½ times his rental. It may be of interest to note, however, that sufficient advantage was not taken of this provision by the tenants in the District, partly due to their ignorance of it and also because ordinary tenant. was satisfied as he was and was unwilling to spend money on rights which, to him, of a dubious value.[1] The provisions of the Tenancy Act of 1883 relating to relations of malguzars with their tenants were added in the *wajib-ul-arz* in 1893 so as to enable the tenants to seek relief on the authority of the terms of the *wajib-ul-arz* than under the law.[2] Although with the enforcement of the Tenancy Act, the number of suits by landlords for arrears of rent was on the decline for some time, the tendency on the part of landlords to harass the ordinary tenants by indulging in gross reck-renting was revealed by settlement enquaries.[3] and looking to this fact the decrease in suits may be ascribed with more probability to circumstances tending to the advantage of land-lords than to any consideration on their part for their tenants. The ordinary tenants previous to settlement were the worst sufferers in this respect, for they held land on short leases at rents which were continuously enhanced.[4] This malady was aggravated by a large number of Bania and Marwari malguzars, who held not less than 370 villages at the Settlement of 1886-1894. Some of these malguzars held villages even at the Settlement of 1862-67 while others acquired them subsequently by purchase, mortgage or foreclosure. The north-western portion of the Murwara tahsil, lying on the border of the erst-while Panna State, was the stronghold

1. *Ibid*, 1893—94, p. 11.
2. Jubbulpore Settlement Report, 1896, p. 43.
3. C. P. Revenue Administration Report, 1888—89, p. 22—23.
4. *Ibid*, 1899—1900, pp. 4—5.

of some Raj-Gond families but in the period subsequent to the Settlement of 1862-67 it also became a happy hunting ground for the Banias of Murwara and Bilehri who dispossessed the old families of a number of villages and reduced them to a state of poverty.[1] These Bania malguzars (Mahajans, commercial men) always aimed at making rent enhancements so much so that the whole produce of a tenant's field often came into their hands in lieu of seed-grain advanced to him, along with the interest and rent.[2] In other words, the tenants were burdened with annual interest charges equal to many years' rental or were fettered with instalment bonds for terms which would outlast their lives and the lives of the generation succeeding them. Whenever a holding was surrendered by a tenant, the Bania malguzar gave it to another tenant on enhanced rent. The other class of malguzars, *viz.*, person of the ordinary cultivating class, were described as "land-grabbers". They were interested in expanding their own home-farms by dispossessing tenants of their land either by inducing them to give up field on promise of making a reduction in their rents, or by ejecting them on account of arrears of rent. The holding so obtained was then annexed to their home-farms.[4]

The succession of bad seasons in the last quarter of the last century was responsible for an accumulation in rental arrears which, in turn, again led to an increase in the number of suits for arrears of rent.

The Tenancy Act of 1883 was replaced by a new Tenancy Act of 1898 which strengthened the position of ordinary tenants The Settlement Officer was authorised to fix all rents, and to reduce the rents of ordinary tenants which he deemed excessive.

The first decade of this century, however, witnessed another principal source of conflict between the landlords and tenants and that was connected with *nistar* rights. It was found that although the fault in these matters was often on the side of the malguzar who had a tendency to extend his cultivation at the expense of lands usually reserved for village *nistar*, he had not infrequently just cause of complaint on account of excessive exercise by tenants of their right of user.[5] The disputes over *nistar* rights continued in the District in varying degrees until about the middle of this century when the Government took a number of legislative and executive

1. Jubbulpore Settlement Report, 1896, p. 22.
2. *Ibid*, pp. 22—23.
3. C. P. Revenue Administration Report, 1899—1900, p. 4.
4. Jubbulpore Settlement Report, 1896, pp 22—23.
5. C. P. Revenue Administration Report, 1909—10, F. C's Review, p. 2.

measures to settle them. These disputes were varied in nature and included refusal of the tenants to pay the customary dues, such as *tika* and *fagua* and to supply the customary labour for ploughing malguzari fields. The malguzars in their turn used to bring pressure to bear over various users of the waste land and frequently impounded the tenants' cattle. Reports show that such disputes were common in Murwara and Sihora tahsils.

These disputes, coupled with the economic development of the country, induced a more commercial relationship between the landlord and the tenant This type of relationship was particularly marked in villages where absentee landlordism was common, for in such village the landlord's main business was the exploitation of his tenants by money-lending.

A word about the tenancy tenures in the District at the beginning of this century also appears necessary. Classed by statutory right or legal status, there were the following main sub-divisions of tenants :

1. *Malik-Makbuzas.*
2. Absolute occupancy tenants.
3. Occupancy tenants.
4. Ordinary tenants.

The occupied area by each of these tenures, along with that of others, at the Settlements of 1886-94 and 1906-12 is given in the table below[1] :

Tenures	Settlement of 1886-94		Settlement of 1906-12	
	Area in acres	Percentage of Total Occupied Area of the District	Area in acres (At Attestation)	Percentage of Total Occupied Area of the District
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
Malik Makbuza	53,621	4	56,094	4
Absolute Occupancy	2,32,338	16	2,01,142	14
Occupancy	3,38,568	24	2,74,582	19
Ordinary	5,25,195	37	5,99,761	42
Sir and *Khudkasht*	2,21,867	16	2,53,139	18
Revenue-Free Grantees	9,971	1	2,985	1
Muafikhairati	14,917	1	8,156	1
Muafikhidmati	12,272	1	10,802	1
Total	14,18,749	100	14,08,961	100

1. Jubbulpore Settlement Report, 1912, pp. 24—25.

The Tenancy Act of 1898 was replaced by a new Tenancy Act (I of 1920). Under this Act, the class of ordinary tenants was abolished and all such tenants were converted into occupancy tenants.

The 'thirties further witnessed a worsening of feelings between the londlord and the tenant. This was attributed to both political and economic factors. During the Civil Disobedience Movement, a tendency to evade payments of rents was noticed in the District, particularly in Sihora tahsil. But the immediate cause was the economic depression which impoverished the peasantry and its consequent inability to pay rent The result was that there was a phenomenal increase in the number of suits for arrears of rent almost from year to year. Another consequence of the depression was that C. P. Land Alienation Act was extended to the District in 1931-32 with a view to preventing the transfer of lands belonging to aboriginal tribes into the hands of other unscrupulous tribes under the prevailing stress.

The Congress Ministry (1937-39) initiated several measures for ameliorating the condition of the tenants. To start with, a 12½ per cent reduction of rents was given in respect of small holdings during 1937-38. Again in pursuance to the recommendations of the Revenue Committee appointed in August, 1938, the Tenancy Act of 1920 underwent many amendments in 1939-40, under one of which the Government was empowered to declare 'absolute occupancy tenants' and 'occupancy tenants' as *Malik Makbuzas* on payment to the landlord of an amount equal to 10 and 12½ times the rent of the holdings, respectively. By another amendment, sub-tenants of *Malik-Makbuzas* and tenants were also recorded as occupancy tenants if the lands were habitually sub-let. Further, if *sir* or *khudkasht* lands were leased as one holding on or after the 1st of November 1939, the lessee could acquire the same right in *sir* land as he would in the *khudkasht* land, and the *sir* right in such land was extinguished. The resignation of the Congress Ministry in November 1939 and the imposition of section 93 regime in its place put a virtual stop to further measures of land reforms, and it was only when the Congress resumed office in 1946 that the pace of land reforms was accelerated. Many measures were initiated in this direction, but the most important among them was the abolition of intermediaries between the State and the actual tiller of the soil. While the Madhya Pradesh Abolition of Proprietary Rights Bill, passed by the Vidhan Sabha in April, 1950, was awaiting the assent of the President, an interim legislative measure, known as the Madhya Pradesh Agricultural Raiyats and Tenant (Acquisition of Privileges) Act, 1950 (XVIII of 1950), was enacted in the same year for facilitating the abolition of proprietary rights, for the protection of tenants

from ejactment, etc. Under the Act, the right of plot-proprietorship (*Malik Makbuza*) could be conferred upon tenants on payment of a prescribed premium. Subsequently, on the promulgation of the M. P. Abolition of Proprietary. Rights (Estates, Mahals, Alienated Lands) Act 1950 (No. 1 of 1951) all proprietary rights in estates and mahals were vested in the State Government on 31st March 1951. In the Jabalpur District a total of 17,54,548 acres vested in the State is shown below:

		Acre
1.	Forest	3,47,470
2.	Barren and cultivable waste land	2,61,164
3.	Land put to non-agricultural uses	1,18,955
4.	Culturable waste land	6,68,299
5.	Permanent pasture and grazing lands	3,40,472
6.	Land under misc. groves and trees	18,188
	Total ..	17,54,548

The Madhya Pradesh Abolition of Proprietary Rights Act, constitutes an important landmark in the history of land reforms, since under this Act, barring home-farm land, home-stead, private wells and tanks and occupied land held by proprietors and tenants, all rights and title and interest vesting in the proprietor vested in the State Government, and all cultivators other than sub-tenants became the tenants of the State. The proprietors were, however, allowed to retain their home-farm lands in *Malik-Makbuza* rights. In the beginning the Patwaris took charge of the land, etc., vested in the State on behalf of the Deputy Commissioner (now known as the Collector, but later Patels were appointed through election for this purpose.

For the loss of proprietary rights, the proprietors were entitled to a compensation in accordance with prescribed scales. Further, petty proprietors were entitled to a rehabilitation grant which was payable immediately and the amount of secured debts or liabilities due by the outgoing proprietors, except the excluded debts, were to be scaled down by the Claims Officers to be appointed under the Act. A special department called the Land Reforms Department was constituted in the State for implementing the main provisions of the Act. Under the set-up of this Department, a Deputy Commissioner of Land Reforms was appointed in Jabalpur District in February 1951 with compensation-cum-Claims Officers and other staff. An amount of Rs. 28,59,586 was payable to the malguzars as compensation. Out of this, a sum of Rs. 26,70,796 was paid till the end of 1961-62.

The abolition of Proprietary Rights Act, besides abolishing the malguzari system, also aimed at giving greater Security and additional rights to the tenants. For instance, the tenants were given facilities to acquire plot proprietary rights in the lands held by them on payment of a nomnal premium.

The aboliion of the malguzari system was followed by the simplification of land tenures. The M. P. Land Revenue Code, 1954 (II of 1955), enforced on 1st October, 1955, made all *Malik-Makbuza* and absolute occupancy tenants as *bhumiswamy*, *i.e.*, full proprietors of land while the occupancy tenants were given *bhumidhari* right which was almost equivalent to a proprietary right except that a *bhumidhari* could not mortgage his interest in the land nor could such interest be attached or sold in execution of any decree or order. But a *bhumidhari* had the option to acquire *bhumiswami* rights by paying three times the land revenue to the State Government. Moreover an occupancy tenant of a *bhumiswami* and a *bhumidhari* could acquire ownership right on payment of premium at 10 and 7 times the rent, respectively.

Consequent upon the Reorganisation of States a unified Land Revenue Code 1959 (No. 20 of 1959), was enacted and enforced on 2nd October, 1959. The Code provides for only one class or tenure-holders of lands to be known as *bhumiswami*. A *bhumiswami* shall have rights of transfer subject only to one restriction that such transfer does not either create a holding above a prescribed limit or an uneconomic holding below 10 acres. Subject to certain restrictions he will have full rights over all kinds of trees in his holdings. A *bhumiswami* has also a right to mortgage his land both by simple and usufructuary mortgage. Thus the Code aims at eliminating tenancy and bringing into existence peasant proprietorship based on owner cultivation.

The Code also protects the rights of subtenants who are given status of occupany tenants. An occupany tenant can be conferred *bhumiswami* rights on his paying 15 times the land revenue in five equal instalments. To protect the existing occupancy tenants of *bhumiswamis* from being reck-rented, it has been laid down that the maximum rent payable by an occupancy tenant shall not exceed four times the land revenue in the case of irrigated land, three times the land revenue in the case of land under *bandhas* and two times the land revenue in other cases. No sub-letting or leasing of land is now permitted except in very emergent cases once in three years or by certain classes of persons such as widows, unmarried women, minors, etc.

The area-wise distribution of the different land tenures in the District each year from 1956-57 to 1960-61 is given below.

(figures in acres)

	1956-57	1957-58	1958-59	1959-60	1960-61
1. *Bhumiswamis* ..	4,69,562	4,70,594	4,70,893	4,72,009	14,51,335
2 *Bhumidharis* ..	9,79,023	9,77,722	9,77,768	n.a.	..
3 Land under Government leases.	487	696	601	611	1,032
4. Land under occupation of Government servants	10,644	10,641	10,658	10,655	10,656

Nistar and Grazing Rights

As stated earlier, *nistar* and grazing rights were formerly regulated by the malguzars in accordance with the customs and rules recorded in the village administration paper, called *wajib-ul-arz*. Following the abolition of the malguzari system, the administration of *nistar* also devolved on the State Government. In order to settle the grazing and *nistar* problems on systematic lines, the Government appointed in 1953 a special staff headed by a Nistar Officer (of the rank of a Deputy Collector) in each tahsil. This staff conducted village to village *nistar* enquiry, decided disputed problems of *nistar* and grazing rights and revised the *wajib-ul-arz* of each village which has now been divided into two parts, *viz*, (1) *wajib-ul-arz*, and (2) *Nistar patrak*.[1] These operations were completed in 1959-60. The work regarding distribution of the nistar material primarily rests with the Gram Sabhas and Nistar Panchayats, which have been formed in the District covering all the villages. The intention was to entrust these bodies with the duties of issuing permits for *nistar* to the villagers after they have been trained in this work.

1. For details see Final Report on the Nistar Enquiries in each tahsil of Jabalpur District (1957-58).

Consolidation of Holdings

The tendency on the part of tenants to sub-divide and fragment their holdings is very common in the District as elsewere. Between about 20 and 25 per cent of all holdings in each village are below five acres in size. The Government's scheme regarding consolidation of holdings was first taken up in the District in 1956. Initially, the work was started in 21 villages with an occupied area of 9,179.81 acres and completed in 1956-57. Of these villages, 12 were situated in Sihora tahsil, six in Patan tahsil, two in Katni tahsil and one in Jabalpur tahsil.

The work has been progressing and till 1961-62 the scheme covered a total of 256 villages with an occupied area of 1,38,319.93 acres. The table below shows the annual progress of the consolidation work in the District from 1956-57 to 1961-62 :

Progress of Consolidation Work.

Year	No. of Villages for which Schemes were Prepared	Area Consolidated (Occupied area)	No. of Permanent Holders
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)
1956-57	21	9,179.81	1,757
1957-58	53	27,406.79	3,741
1958-59	64	34,466.80	4,572
1959-60	22	11,435.48	1,653
1960-61	50	25,752.45	3,961
1961-62	46	30,078.60	4,780
Grand Total ..	256	1,38,319.93	20,392

Year	Khasra Numbers before Consolidation	Net khasra No. after Consolidation	Percentage reduction of Col. 7 on Col. 5.
(1)	(5)	(6)	(7)
1956-57	9,401	6,716	29
1957-58	17,709	10,616	40
1958-59	19,520	11,676	40
1959-60	10,042	5,543	45
1960-61	15,340	9,228	40
1961-62	21,027	13,869	34
Grand Total ..	93,039	57,648	38

Bhoodan

The origin of the Bhoodan Movement in Jabalpur District can be traced back to September-October 1952 when, following the lead given by Acharya Vinoba Bhave elsewhere in the country, certain public workers undertook a month-long *pad-yatra* (journey on foot) in the District and collected about 17,000 acres of land as Bhoodan. In the period that followed many Sarvodaya workers including Jai Prakash Narain, late Krishna Das Jaju, late Thakur Pyarelal Singh and other undertook similar *pad-yatras* in the District and so successfully spread the message of Bhoodan that hardly a village was left in the District which did not give some land as Bhoodan. Acharya Bhave himself visited the District for about 10 days in November 1961 and received land-gifts in large numbers. The lands received as Bhoodan in the District from the inception of the movement till 31st March 1962, amount to 32,309.26 acres out of which 20,439.11 acres have been distributed among landless persons of scheduled castes, scheduled tribes and others. The table below shows the tahsil-wise position of Bhoodan lands received and distributed upto 31st March 1962.—

Tahsil (1)	Land Received (2)	No. of Donors (3)	Land Distributed (4)	No. of Recipients (5)
Jabalpur	10,053.55	2,444	6,103.09	1,518
Sihora	5,007.60	1,667	1,690.38	996
Patan	4,041.51	1,145	2,101.14	676
Murwara	13,206.60	3,284	10,244.26	2,717
Total ..	32,309.26	8,540	20,439.11	5,907

Tahsil (1)	Vested Land (6)	Rejected Land (7)	Land Unfit for Distribution (8)	Land Pending for Distribution (9)
Jabalpur	453.07	968.44	105.92	2,576.16
Sihora	2,789.93	124.87	..	3,192.35
Patan	2,118.31	92.50	17.90	1,829.58
Murwara	10,467.68	702.72	216.20	2,013.42
	15,828.99	1,888.62	340.02	9,611.51

Administration of other Sources of Revenue—Central and State

As at present two cetegories of revenue—Central and State—exist in the District. The important items of Central Revenue are Union Excise Duties, Income Tax and Estate Duty. Some particulars about these revenues, as far as they concern the District of Jabalpur are given below.

Union Excise Duties

The main excisable commodities in the District are tobacco and vegetable non-essential oils. The other excisable commodities are cotton fabrics, package tea, electric fans, electric motors and China-wares. The annual receipts in the District from each of the above commodities from 1952-53 are given in the table below:

(In Rs.)

Year	Receipts From							
	Tobacco	V.N.E. Oils	Cotton Fabrics	Package Tea	Electric Fans	Electric Motors	China wares	Total
1952-53	.. 46,85,505	..	..	..	..	..	..	46,85,505
1953-54	.. 45,48,524	..	..	1,249	..	..	..	45,59,773
1954-55	.. 40,17,600	..	..	936	..	..	..	40,18,536
1955-56	.. 12,91,919	13,414	..	560	..	..	..	13,05,893
1956-57	.. 51,48,540	1,86,016	..	438	55	..	..	53,35,049
1957-58	.. 71,40,511	2,29,975	..	508	425	..	..	73,71,419
1958-59	.. 85,70,969	1,02,247	..	98	1,125	..	..	86,74,439
1959-60	.. 84,98,710	3,16,809	3,740	189	1,230	..	..	88,20,668
1960-61	.. 82,41,890	2,05,305	36,831	135	772	2,940	..	84,87,873
1961-62	.. 78,67,121	1,69,765	78,625	87	1,357	2,887	2,858	81,22,700

Income Tax.—The Indian Income Tax Act is administered by the staff of the Income Tax Circle, Jabalpur which comprises the District of Jabalpur, Mandla and Narsimhapur. The demand and

collections under Income Tax in this District from the year 1950-51 to 1961-62 are given in the Table below:

Year		Demand Rs.	Collections Rs.
1950-51	..	13,72,187	13,09,864
1951-52	..	16,76,076	11,19,816
1952-53	..	22,74,125	12,82,639
1953-54	..	25,42,691	16,89,160
1954-55	..	26,20,204	13,69,822
1955-56	..	22,76,565	13,04,484
1956-57	..	22,40,731	15,03,123
1957-58	..	25,10,785	17,23,993
1958-59	..	27,95,455	22,50,749
1959-60	..	22,40,276	15,50,749
1960-61	..	25,28,971	16,21,399
1961-62	..	26,35,050	16,29,522

Estate Duty.—The Estate Duty Act, 1953 (Act No 34 of 1953) was brought into force in the District from the 15th October, 1953.

The annual receipts in the District under Estate Duty from 1957-58 are given below :

Year		Receipts (Rs.)
1957-58	..	3,041
1958-59	..	562
1959-60	..	21,617
1960-61	..	89,138
1961-62	..	2,17,975

Certain important sources of State revenue besides land revenue are :

(1) State Excise, (2) Sales Tax, (3) Forests, (4) Taxes on Motor Vehicles, and (6) Registration.

State Excise.—The income under this head is derived from imported liquor, country spirit and fermented liquor, opium, *ganja* and *bhang*. The annual figures of receipts from each of these items during the period from 1946 to 1959-60 are given in the Table below :

Receipts from State Excise

(In Rs.)

Year	Imported Liquor	Country Spirit and Fermented Liquor: Country Spirit	Country Spirit and Fermented Liquor: Tari	Opium	Ganja	Bhang	Total
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)	(8)
1946	87,858	21,16,205	61,772	1,31,079	5,11,587	17,038	29,25,539
1947	74,634	19,68,591	67,415	1,75,853	5,67,178	15,335	28,69,356
1948	68,612	20,51,447	1,40,700	1,75,595	4,78,058	17,237	29,31,559
1949	65,511	21,93,909	1,27,562	2,10,035	4,68,235	18,059	30,83,311
1950	70,411	27,11,910	1,01,736	2,00,416	5,52,678	13,556	36,50,707
1951	59,945	23,12,759	1,03,924	2,05,796	6,18,405	15,422	33,16,251
1952	56,639	23,22,244	1,04,440	2,31,023	6,44,282	21,795	33,71,423
1953	1,06,633	21,26,688	1,11,006	2,15,340	5,02,023	9,671	30,71,361
1954	1,03,009	18,97,565	1,02,255	1,83,530	3,19,146	8,130	26,13,635
1955	1,18,648	20,57,609	98,744	1,39,895	1,87,110	3,090	26,05,096
1956	1,51,512	21,24,873	1,14,040	1,45,394	1,37,283	3,760	26,76,862
1957	2,02,457	25,09,207	1,19,792	1,33,771	1,07,477	1,550	30,74,254
1958	3,12,970	24,57,012	1,32,400	63,207	1,12,300	6,560	30,84,449
1959-60	2,06,444	24,39,618	1,54,480	10,100	66,980	6,050	28,83,672

Sales Tax—This Tax was introduced in the District on 1st June 1947 under the C.P. & Berar Sales Tax Act, (XXI of 1947) which has since been replaced by the Madhya Pradesh General Sales Tax Act, 1958 (II of 1959). The latter Act was brought into force on 1st April, 1959. The Central Sales Tax has also been introduced in the District from 1st July, 1957 under the Central Sales Tax Act of 1956 Both these Acts are administered by the Jabalpur Regional Sales Tax Office, the jurisdiction of which extends to Mandla district also. The annual figures of receipt under the State Sales Tax from 1954 55 to 1961-62 are given below:—

Year		Amount (Rs.).
1954-55	..	27,30,695
1955-56	..	27,06,875
1956-57	..	27,27,626
1957-58	..	27,66,301
1958-59	..	37,03 825
1959-60	..	47,[illegible],534
1960-61	..	60,32 072
	.	61,83,816 (up to 28-2-62)

The increase in receipts from 1959 60 onwards is due to the introduction of first-point taxation The annual figures of revenue under the Central Sales Tax Act are as under:

Year		Amount (Rs.
1957-58		1,45,412
1958-59	.	6,16 758
1959-60	..	5,69,174
1960-61	..	5,08,575
1961-62	.	9,15 476

Forest—The revenue under forests is derived from timber and other produce removed by Government, consumers or purchasers and from other miscellaneous sources like cattle grazing, etc. The

annual income from the forests in the Division from 1949-50 to 1961-62 is given below:—

Year			Amount of Revenue (Rs)
1949-50	..	..	11,87,330
1950-51	..	..	11,39,273
1951-52	..	..	25,72,842
1952-53	..	..	20,12,368
1953-54	..	..	20,76,379
1954-55	..	..	27,89,483
1955-56	..	..	25,53,697
1956-57	..	..	24,37,804
1957-58	..	..	18,71,470
1958-59	..	..	17,70,359
1959-50	..	..	28,97,433
1960-61	..	..	31,50,689
1961-62	..	..	25,42,550

Taxes on Motor Vehicles.—The income under this head is derived from the registration of motor vehicles, issue of licence to drivers, conductors, etc. The annual receipts under this head from 1955-56 to 1960-61 are given below:—

Year			Receipts Rs.
1955-56	..	..	8,27,689
1956-57	..	..	19,99,473
1957-58	..	..	20,84,313
1958-59	..	..	20,96,974
1959-60	..	..	24,15,935
1960-61	..	..	29,83,553

Registration.—The income under this head is derived from registration fee, copying fee, etc., which are levied under the Indian Registration Act. There are four registration offices in the District, *viz.*, at Jabalpur, Katni, Sihora and Patan. The annual

figures of documents registered, alongwith the revenue receipts are given in the Table below :

Year	No. of Documents Regis-	Amount (Rs)
1953	13,024	1,13,616
1954	11,237	96,590
1955	11,805	92,898
1956	16,060	1,20,342
1957	13,753	1,18,592
1958	13,114	1,16,085
1959	15,566	1,40,413
1960	12,455	1,43,648
1961	14,164	1,48,204
1962	12,262	1,44,474

Stamps.—The income under this head is from sale of stamps of various denominations--both judicial and non-judicial The annual receipts from this item in the District from 1958 to 1962 are given below :

Year	Receipts (Rs.)
1958	43,21,109
1959	31,39,618
1960	36,07,575
1961	68,65,049
1962	32,42,396

The increase in receipts during 1961 is mainly due to the fact that abnormal sales of entertainment duty stamps and court fee stamps were reported during the year.

CHAPTER XII

LAW, AND ORDER AND JUSTICE

Neither a special system of courts nor written law existed under the Marathas, Besides the Royal Court, the Kamavisdar and Patels dispensed justice. Jagirdars also exercised judicial powers within their areas. Kamavisdars either delivered the judgements themselves or called the Panchayats. Patels were not empowered to decide civil cases themselves. They could only call a Panchayat for the purpose. Panchayat was composed of respected persons of the village, mutually agreed upon by the parties.

A Mahajan elected by the Patel and public of a village decided certain types of cases. The chiefs of some castes called Sethia decided some disputes arising in their castes themselves.

There was no well-defined procedure for conduct of business of Gram Panchayats. The proceedings were also not recorded. But the proceedings of Panchayats called by royal officials were reduced to writing and were submitted to them for approval. These decisions were appealable before the ruler.

Patels could impose fines in minor criminal cases, but all important criminal cases were heard by Government Officials.

In this way the Panchayats, particularly in civil cases, were, to some extent, a part of the judicial system of the Bhonslas. Recourse to the royal courts was an expensive affair, hence the popularity of the Panchayats.

In the beginning of the 19th century a British Resident, Richard Jenkins was appointed in the Court of Bhonslas. He tried to reorganise the judicial system on two cardinal principles (1) Some control on Panhayats, and (ii) imparting importane to police and administration. The foreign Government did not want to associate people with the administration of justice; it became wholly an official function to dispense justice an the Panchayats, which were the backbone of justice, gradually languished. The Honorary Magistracy was essentially in the nature of a reward for loyalty to the British Crown. However, the British Government succeeded in establishing a unified legal system.

In 1818 when Jabalpur was ceded by the Marathas to the British and formed a part of the Nerbudda Territory, the foundation for the growth of a regular system of law and justice was firmly laid. Since then Jabalpur became the headquarters of the Commissioner of Nerbudda Territory. Later on, in 1820, however, the whole of these Territories were redesignated as 'Saugor and Nerbudda Territories', and were placed under the Governor-General's Agent and Commissioner at Jabalpur. "A separate officer Mr. Cockerell being at the same time appointed to the charge of the district under the designation of Principal Assistant Commissioner, assisted by a Junior Assistant Commissioner in the Criminal and Revenue Departments and a Sudder Ameen for Judicial Civil work having jurisdiction in original suits above Rupees 400, the Principal Assistant exercising only appellate jurisdiction in this branch of administration. Below the Sudder Ammen were Pergunnah Courts, prosided over by 3 Tehseeldars who were also sub-collectors as well as local Police Officers or Thanadars. This system continued in force for about 25 years or until 1843, when the Governor General, Lord Ellenborough, being dissatisfied with the administration generally, principally on account of the Boondela Insurrection, remodelled it, and relieved every officer in the Division of his charge from the Commissioner downwards, replacing them by entire new Staff of Divisional and District Officers, the latter in lower salaries and under the designation of Deputy Commissioners, with only Revenue and Criminal powers of a Collector and Magistrate of the Regulation Provinces. The department of Civil Justice was likewise recast by the appointment of a Civil Judge with the powers of Sessions Judge, who relieved the Commissioner of all Sessions duties besides constituting the ultimate Civil Court of the Territories with supervision over the Courts of Principal Sudder Ameens, Sudder Ameens and Moonsiffs, all purely Civil Judicial functionaries, which were created at the same time, but where in no manner made subordinate as heretofore to the District Officers, who thus ceased to exercise any Civil Judicial functions. On this system the administration of the district was conducted for nearly 20 years when the Punjab system was introduced in 1862 on the formation of the Central Provinces administration. The separate Civil Courts were swept away and every officer in the District from the Deputy Commissioner down to the Tehsildar was invested with Revenue, Criminal and Civil jurisdicion. The Police Department was at the same time separated from the Magisterial and placed under a district staff with a separate departmental Head, in direct subordination to the Chief of the administration.[1]

1. Jubbulpore Settlement Report, 1869, pp. 19-20.

Immediately after the formation of the Central Provinces in 1861, into which this district was also incorporated, the new administration was faced with the major task of introducing a uniform system of law and procedure in the whole of the Central Provinces. With this aim in view the various laws which were current in the different constituent units before the birth of the C. P. were fused into one and uniform Rules and Orders were made operative throughout the entire province.

The machinery for the dispensing of Civil justice as existing at this time may now be described. There were Tahsildars residing in the interior of the district and trying suits upto the value of Rs. 300. Assistant and Extra-Assistant Commissioners residing at the district headquarters tried suits upto Rs. 5,000. The Deputy Commissioner presided over the district and tried suits without any pecuniary limit. These were the Courts of original jurisdiction and their judgements were appealable. The Court of the Commissioner, Jabalpur division functioned as the Appellate Court. There was a Small Causes Court at Jabalpur and a Cantonment Magistrate at the Military Station of Jabalpur empowered to try civil suits upto Rs. 200. His decisions were not appealable. Over all these courts (excepting that of the Cantonment Magistrate) there was the Judicial Commissioner as final Court of Appeal. His decisions were appealable only to the Judicial Committee of the Privy Council. The principal towns and places were well provided with Civil Judges, and though in the interior Civil Courts were few and far between yet no difficulty was felt as the people were then not litigious.

In the year 1863, for the first time a complete classification of suits was prepared. In 1863-64 a Station Court was established at Jabalpur exclusively devoted pro-tempore to Civil justice to avoid, to some extent, distraction incidental to a judicial officer, who has other and executive functions to perform. A law, Act VI of 1865, was passed defining the competency of the various Courts in all their several grades.

A system of inspection and supervision of subordinate courts was also evolved, involving scrutiny of records, procedure and decisions of their presiding officers.

From the year 1865 onwards the judicial machinery of the District consisted of courts established under the Central Provinces Courts Act XIV of 1865 and those which exercised authority under

Act XI of 1865 relating to Small Causes Courts. The said Act legalised eight grades of courts to be presided over by Tahsildar, Assistant Commissioner, Deputy Commissioner, Commissioner and Judicial Commissioner :

S. No.	Court	Territorial Jurisdiction	Original Jurisdiction	Appellate Jurisdiction.
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
1.	Tahsildar Grade II	Tahsil .	Cases upto Rs. 100 in value.	
2.	Tahsildar Grade I ..	"	Cases upto Rs. 200 in value.	
3.	Assistant Commissioner Grade III	Part of District	Cases upto Rs. 500 in value.	
4.	Assistant Commissioner Grade II	"	Cases upto Rs. 1000 in value.	
5.	Assistant Commissioner Grade I.	"	Cases upto Rs. 5,000 in value.	
6.	Deputy Commissioner	District ..	Cases above Rs. 5,000 in value.	Appeals from courts at 1 to 4.
7.	Commissioner.. ..	Division .	"	Appeals from courts at 5 and 6.
8.	Judicial Commissioner	Province ..	"	Appeal from Court appellate cases from Courts at 6 and 7.

In addition Small Causes Courts were set up at appropriate places.

In 1885 an important scheme for judicial reorganisation was drawn up and incorporated in the Central Provinces Civil Courts Act, (Act XVI of 1885). Though it became law on 2nd October 1885, it actually came into force from January 1886.

The principal feature of the scheme was the gradual separation of administration of civil justice by the establishment of new civil courts in all places where there was work enough to occupy a separate Judge. Thus in some places the new courts called the Court of the Munsiff were established to relieve the burden of Tahsildars at head quarters of tahsils. Another important feature of the scheme was the relief of Deputy Commissioners of the districts in which civil appellate work was heavy, by the appointment of more officers of the rank of Assistant or Extra Assistant Commissioner to be Civil Judges with appellate powers.

At the close of 1891 sanction was given for the appointment of a Judicial Assistant to the Commissioners of Jubbulpore and Nerbudda Divisions and the appointment became effective from 1st January 1892. He took over all the Civil work of the Commissioner. He was not made subject to the control of or subordinate to the Commissioner for reasons of administrative convenience as he was intended to practically relieve him of all civil judicial work. At the same time, as regards the burden of Civil appellate work, relief was afforded to the Deputy Commissioner by the appointment of a Civil Judge. In 1901 the Judicial Assistant was redesignated as Divisional Judge.

During the year 1901-02 the scheme for separating the work of administering civil justice from criminal, judicial and executive work was, to some extent, brought into force. Deputy Commissioners were relieved of all civil judicial work. The Court of the Civil Judge was declared independent of the control of the court of the Deputy Commissioner To each district was assigned a civil judicial staff of Assistant and Extra-Assistant Commissioners distinct from that to which the disposal of criminal judicial and executive work was allotted. It was settled that, apart from hearing civil suits and appeals. the only duties on which Civil Judicial Assistants could be employed were the charge of the Treasury and that of the Office of the District Registrar.

The year 1902 was the first throughout which civil judicial work was carried on by a separate staff The separation was not complete, partly owing to the nominal occupation by Deputy Commissioners of the office of the District Judge and partly to the paucity of Munsifs which necessitated ordinory civil work as well as rent-law cases being taken up by Tahsildars and Naib-Tahsildars. The new Munisifs scheme was introduced at the close of the year with a view to confining Tahsildars and Naib-Tahsildars to their proper duties.

The year 1903 witnessed the introduction of the new scheme providing for the appointment of a large additional number of Munsifs and the gradual relief of the Tahsildars and Naib-Tahsildars from civil work unconnected with the rent law. During the year supervision of the subordinate civil courts was transferred from the Deputy Commissioner to the District Judge. In 1904,[1] (by the C. P. Civil Courts Act II of 1904.) the Courts Act was radically amended and civil judiciary was completely separated from Administration. Civil judicial work entirely devolved upon Divisional Judges, District. Judges. Sub-Judges and Munsifs.

1. C. P. Administration Report, 1904-05 p. 12.

Amendment of the Central Provinces Civil Courts Act 1904 in 1909-10 permitted the decision of certain cases, *i.e.*, those relating to appeals in murder cases and complicated civil cases, by Benches of Judges of the Court of Judicial Commissioner instead of by single judge and extended the jurisdiction of the subordinate civil courts. The District Judge who was now in charge of the civil courts in the District exercised only a limited jurisdiction. The Divisional and Sessions Judges had superior jurisdiction of civil powers. In 1911 the Cantonment Small Causes Court at Jabalpur was abolished with effect from 1st January and from that date the Judge of City Small Causes Court exercised jurisdiction in the Cantonment. In 1912-13 Mandla civil district was merged with Jabalpur and the Subordinate Judge at Mandla was made the Additional District Judge

In 1917, the Central Provinces Courts Act (Act I of 1917) was passed and put into operation from 14th May.[1] According, civil judiciary underwent further reorganisation. The courts of Divisional Judges were abolished and the province was divided into nine districts under District and Sessions Judges, one of whom was stationed at Jabalpur.

Subordinate Judges and Munsifs who constituted the Central Provinces Civil Service (Judicial) were placed on a time scale of pay and Munsifs were raised to the status of gazetted officers in 1920-21.

By the Central Provinces Courts Act (VIII of 1924) the designations of Subordinate Judges and Munsifs were changed to Subordinate Judge, First Class and Subordinate Judge, Second Class, respectively, and the pecuniary limit of the jurisdiction of the latter was raised to Rs. 5,000. From 7th December, 1932 the jurisdiction of the District and Sessions Judge, Jabalpur, was extended to Sagar also.

The Court of the Judicial Commissioner was abolished on 9th January, 1936 and a charactered High Court was established for the whole of Central Provinces and Berar with its seat at Nagpur. In 1945 the designation of the Subordinate Judges was again revised as Civil Judges. In 1956 the powers of District Judges were enhanced and they were empowered to hear appeals against the decrees and orders of Civil Judges upto Rs. 10,000. The Tahsildars were invested with powers of extra Civil Judges for trying cases under section 106 of the Central Provinces and Berar Tenancy Act. The Madhya Pradesh Abolition of Proprietary Rights (Estates, Mahals and

1. *Ibid*, 1917-18, p. 9.

Alienated lands) Act of 1950 was put into operation in 1951 and as a result of it all suits under Tenancy Act ceased to exist. Therefore, the institution of Extra Civil Judges also ceased to exist forthwith. The Madhya Pradesh Civil Courts Act of 1958 (19 of 1958) was put into effect from 1st January 1959. Under this Act, the Civil Judiciary now consists of the Courts of (I) District Judge (ii) Additional District Judge (iii) Civil Judge Class I and (iv) Civil Judge Class II. From 15th August 1961, the revenue districts of Sagar and Damoh were separated from Jabalpur civil district and they formed a separate civil district. Thus the Jabalpur Civil District now comprises Jabalpur and Mandla Revenue district.

Administration of Criminal Justice.

Before 1861 there was a common machinery of civil and criminal justice in the District and no separation was effected for the administraion of Civil Justice as already described. The Courts established in 1861 were as follows :

	Court	Powers
(i)	Court of Tahsildar (seat in the interior of the distt.)	They exercised the power of subordinat magistrate under Criminal Procedure Code.
(ii)	Court of Assistant Commissioner and Extra Assistant Commissioner (seat at district headquarters).	They exercised the power of either a subordinate magistrate or a magistrate under Criminal Procedure Code.
(iii)	Court of District Magistrate (seat at district headquarters))	In addition to ordinary powers magistrate they were empowered to try all cases except those punishable with death and could inflict any punishment upto seven years imprisonment.
(iv)	Court of the Divisional Commissioner.	Powers of a Sessions Judge.
(v)	Court of Judicial Commissioner (seat at Nagpur. but only a court of appeal and revision.)	Functioned as a Sudder or High Court and has power of passing capital punishment
(vi)	Court of Cantontment magistrate (seat at Jabalpur.)	He exercised magisterial powers under I. P. C. and his decisions were no appealable)
(vii)	Court of Honorary magistrates. ..	Exercised limited powers of magistrates as were delegated to them from time to time.

Honorary Magistrates were appointed for the first time in the year 1862.

Thus the appellate criminal courts were those of the District Magistrate (Deputy Commissioner) Court of Sessions and Judicial Commissioner. While the courts of first instance were those of the Tahsildar, Assistant and Extra Assistant Commissioner, Small Causes and Cantonment Magistrate.

The Courts of Sessions were invariably Magistrates of Districts who when trying important cases, were aided by Assessors selected from the community at large.

A new Criminal Code was enforced with effect from 1st January 1873. It marked the introduction of an important era in the history of Criminal justice. This Code defined and enhanced the powers of various Magistrates and authorised them to try cases summarily. On the subject of appeals especially the law was greatly altered, the principal changes being the power to appeal in certain cases of acquittal (secion 272) and the limited power of enhancing punishments on appeal (252). The law was made more complete with regard to public prosecution, the duties of land-holders in reporting crime and the arrest of offenders by private persons. The law relating to the preventive jurisduction of Magi strates was made more comprehensive and clearer than under the old Code. It was also provided that the Jury shall consist of five persons, amongst others in the District of Jabalpur.

In 1910-11, in order to relieve the District Magistrates of the districts from he necessity of trying original criminal cases except under special circumstances and at the same time to avoid the increasing work of Sessions Judges by requiring them to try cases which can be adequately dealt with by Magistrates, a number of selected First Class Magisrates were empowered under section 30 of Criminal Procedure Code.

In the succeeding year 1911-12, the post of Sub-Divisional Magistrates were created. Assistant or Extra Assistant Commissioners were placed in charge of one or more tahsils and given the legal powers of a Sub-Divisional Magistrate in criminal matters and with certain exceptions the powers of a Deputy Commissioner under the various Revenue laws. The system relieved the Deputy Com missioner of much unnecessary work and enabled him to attend to more important matters.

In 1912-13 the revenue district of Mandla was also merged with Jabalpur Sessions district and an Additional Sessions Judge's Court was created at Mandla. By the C. P. Courts Act of 1917 the Court of the Divisional Judge a Jabalpur was abolished and re-placed by the Court of District and Sessions Judge with jurisdiction extending over Jabalpur and Mandla disricts. Simultaneously, Saugor revenue district was detached from the Jurisdiction of this new court. This Act empowered the Court of District and Ses-sions Judge to entertain appeals and revisions against the decisions

of First Class Magistrates in the district in which maximum sentence given was four years. Sessions cases were also taken up by this court. From 7th December 1932 the Sagar revenue district was again merged with Jabalpur District and consequently the Jurisdiction of the Sessions Judge Jabalpur was extended to Sagar also.

As already noted, the court of the Judicial Commissioner was abolished from 9th January 1936. When India become independent. Honorary Magistracy was abolished in 1947. Panchayat system which had been thrown into oblivion began receiving attention. It is described in another section of the Chapter. In 1952, the powers of trying cases under Prevention of Corruptiin Act were also conferred on the Sessions Court.

Till 1955. the District Magistrate was empowered to entertain appeals and revisions against the decisions of Magistrates of Second and Third Class. The usual system prevailing was that the District Magistrate was given the help of a senior Magistrate of First Class designated as Additional District Magistrate in order to relieve him his burden. But by the amendment of Cr. P. C. (Act No. XXVI of Cr. P. C.) in 1955, the Sessions Judge began to entertain such appeals and revisions from 1st January 1956.

From 1956 the system of trial with the help of jurors and assessors was discontinued. With effect from 15th August 1961, the jurisdiction over Sagar and Damoh district consequent upon the creation of an independent court at Sagar.

ORGANISATION OF CIVIL AND CRIMINAL COURTS

Civil Judiciary

The Civil judiciary of the District in 1962 consisted of the following courts :

1.	Court of District Judge.	1
2.	Courts of Additional District Judge.	3
3.	Courts of Civil Judge Class I and II	5
4	Small Causes Court.	[illegible]

Court of District Judge—It is the highest civil court of original and appellate jurisdiction at district level. The court is also empowered to try regular and miscellaneous vicil appeals of subordinate courts above the value of Rs. 5,000 but below Rs. 10,000.

Appeals in suits valued in excess of Rs. 10,000 are entertained directly by the High Court. It entertains applications under section 24 Cr. P. C. for transfer of civil cases, civil appeals and other civil proceedings pending in any of the courts in the civil district. Besides, it hears cases, applications and petitions under specified sections of various special Acts, viz., Indian Companies Act 1913, Musalman Wakf Act 1923, Madhya Pradesh Abolition of Proprietary Rights Act, 1950, Jabalpur Corporation Act 1948, Hindu Minority and Guardianship Act 1956, Special Marriages Act 1954 and Hindu Marriages Act 1955, etc.

Court of First Additional District Judge—The jurisdiction of this court is divided into two areas and the court exercises various degrees of powers in these areas :—

(i) Jabalpur and Patan tahsils.—Regular and miscellaneous civil appeals from Rs. 2,000 to Rs. 5,000 in value, and (ii) Regular and tenancy suits over Rs. 20,000 in value (iii) Jabalpur Revenue District—cases under Adjustment and Liquidation of Industrial Workers Debt Act 1936 and Co-operative Societies Act, 1912, over Rs. 10,000 in value.

Court of Second Additional District Judge.—The jurisdiction of the court varies in different areas of the District :—

(i) Sihora and Murwara tahsils.—Regular and miscellaneous civil appeals upto Rs. 5,000 in value and regular and tenancy suits over Rs. 20,000 in value.

(ii) Jabalpur and Patan tahsils—Small Cause Suits over Rs. 500 to Rs. 1,000 in value and cases under the Charitable and Religious Trusts Act (Central Provinces Trust Act 1931).

(iii) Jabalpur Revenue District—Probate and Letters of Administrative case.

Court of Third Additional District Judge.—The court exercises the following powers :—

(i) Jabalpur, Patan and Murwara tahsils—Regular civil and miscellaneous appeals upto Rs. 2,000 in value, and regular civil and miscellaneous suits over Rs. 10,000 but below Rs. 20,000.

(ii) Jabalpur Revenue District—Cases under Land Acquisition Act, cases under all other Acts not mentioned in any other courts and insolvency appeals upto Rs. 2,000.

Courts of Civil Judge Class II, Murwara and Sihora.—They are empowered to try the following cases—Small Cause suits upto Rs. 200.

Small Cause suits over Rs. 200 but upto Rs. 1,000 to be tried by regular procedure, regular and tenancy suits upto Rs. 5,000 in value and applications under Indian Co-operative Societies Act 1912.

Court of First Civil Judge Class I.—Its jurisdiction is as follows (i) whole of the District—regular and tenancy suits from Rs. 5,000 to Rs. 10,000 and applications under the Indian Co-operative —Societies Act, 1912. (ii) Jabalpur and Patan tahsils—Small Cause suits upto Rs. 500, cases under M. P. Industrial Disputes Settlement Act 1951, and Employees' State Insurance Act 1948, cases under Guardians and Wards Act, Insolvency petitions, civil revisions under Panchayat Act, succession certificates, cases under Displaced persons (Debt Adjustment) Act, 1951 and applications under sections 20 (A) of the Municipal Act 1922. Besides, it tries regular and tenancy suits over Rs. 500 upto Rs. 5,000 and entertains applications under Indian Co-operative Societies Act, 1912.

Court of Second Civil Judge Class II.—Its jurisdiction extends to Jabalpur and Patan tahsils. It tries regular suits upto Rs. 5,000 transferred by First Civil Judge Class II, Jabalpur and suits for ejectment of houses valued upto Rs. 5,000 and regular suits upto Rs. 500.

Court of Additional Civil Judge Class II Jabalpur is empowered to try regular suits upto the value of Rs. 5,000 as are received from transfer.

Courts Exercising Small Cause Powers—There are no independent Small Cause courts. Various Civil Judges have been empowered to try such cases as has been described above.

(i) **Total Number of Suits**—The table below shows the tahsilwise total number of original civil suits filed during the year 1961.

Name of Tahsil	Ordinary Suits				
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)
	Rs. 1000 to 2000	2000 to 3000	3000 to 4000	4000 to 5000	Total
Jabalpur	113	41	14	12	180
Patan	5	2	..	—	7
Sihora	3	2	1	—	6
Murwara	31	10	6	3	50

(2) **Number of Civil Suits (other than Small Cause Suits).**—The table below shows the number of civil suits instituted in the various tahsils of the District during the year 1961. Looking into the table we find that the largest number of suits was in Jabalpur tahsil (723).

Tehsil	Not over Rs. 10	Rs. 10 to Rs. 50	Rs. 50 to Rs. 100	Rs. 100 to Rs. 200	Rs. 200 to Rs. 5000	Rs. 500 to Rs. 1000	Rs. 1000 to Rs. 5000	Rs. 5000 to Rs. 10 000	over Rs. 10,000	Suits of unknown value.	Total
Jabalpur	5	16	62	108	221	97	169	25	23	6	723
Patan	..	1	2	6	7	8	7	..	..	..	31
Sihora	..	1	10	6	43	12	6	..	..	..	78
Murwara	1	6	27	21	89	52	50	..	..	..	248
	6	24	101	138	360	169	232	25	23	6	1080

Year and Courts	No. of Suits Before the Court				No. of Suits disposed						
	Pending at the beginning of year	Instituted during year.	Other-wise received	Total	Without trial	Without contest	Judgement for plaintiff	Judgement for defendent	Arbitration	Total	Pending For more than one year.
1959											
District Courts	113	76	125	314	51	15	18	10	..	85	6
Small Causes Courts	761	1488	380	2629	252	378	129	188	..	1006	93
Civil Judge I	326	48	109	483	6	28	42	31	..	140	94
Civil Judge II	649	1134	341	2124	270	114	206	108	..	1660	125
1960											
District Courts	85	81	..	166	31	7	14	11	..	98	19
Small Causes Courts	1166	1200	425	7631	3006	516	130	45	..	835	91
Civil Judge I	140	25	197	362	23	27	49	27	..	140	80
Civil Judge II	1060	1126	44	2597	132	162	207	87	..	122	342
1961											
District Courts	98	81	142	321	21	19	14	12	..	019	20
Small Causes Courts	835	1169	113	2117	280	565	116	36	..	739	103
Civil Judge I	140	24	120	374	10	31	32	20	1	249	43
Civil Judge II	1220	975	300	2495	228	218	284	126	1	903	273

(7) **Appellate Disposal**.—The table below shows the position regarding institution and disposal of Miscellaneous and Regular appeals in the various courts of the District during the period 1959-1961.

(a) **Civil Appeals (Miscellaneous)**.—Examining the relevant table it will be seen that the highest number of appeals pending from the beginning of the year was in 1961 when 40 appeals were pending as against 15 in 1960 and 12 in 1959. Considering the position regarding institution of cases it will be seen that 91 cases, the highest number, were instituted in 1960 as against 68 in 1961 and 49 in 1959. As regards their disposal, 30 cases were disposed in 1960 as against 34 in 1961 and 19 in 1959.

(b) **Civil Appeals (Regular)**—The highest institution under this head was in 1961 when 239 cases came up as against 190 in 1960 and 84 in 1959. The highest disposal was in 1961 when 153 cases were disposed as against 150 in 1960 and 102 in 1959.

Civil Appeals (Miscellaneous)

Year	No. of Appeals before the Court			Appeals disposed (Excluding transfer)					Pending	
	Pending at the beginning of year	Instituted during the year	Tota	Dismissed or not prose-cuted	Confirmed	Modified	Revised	Remanded	Total	for more than one year
1959	12	49	61	9	13	6	11	2	19	..
1960	15	91	16	11	33	13	5	19	39	..
1961	40	68	18	15	45	1	4	5	34	1
Appeals From decrees (Regular appeals)										
1959 — .. —	67	84	151	23	63	27	34	19	102	4
1960 — .. —	101	190	291	19	62	13	25	5	150	21
1961 — — —	152	239	391	25	41	11	22	4	153	8

Criminal Judiciary.

The number of courts which were empowered to try various degrees of criminal cases (on 1st January 1962) was as follows:—

1.	Court of the District and Sessions Judge	1
2.	Courts of Additional District and Sessions Judge	3
3.	Court of the District Magistrate	1
4.	Courts of the Additional District Magistrate	2
5.	Courts of the Sub-Divisional Magistrate	5
6.	Courts of the Judge Magistrate	15
7.	Courts of other Stipendiary Magistrates	29

1. **Court of the Sessions Judge.**—This is the highest Court of appeal in the District and it is empowered to entertain appeal and revisions against the decisions of various Magistrates. It is a joint court for civil and criminal cases in the District The same court while exercising civil powers is designated as Court of the District Judge. It is empowered to entertain and try all sessions cases arising within Jabalpur and Mandla revenue districts. It is also empowered to hear cases against the Prevention of Corruption Act of 1952.

2. **Court of the Additional Sessions Judge**—There are three courts of Additional Sessions Judges. They entertain appeals and revisions against the decisions of stipendiary Magistrates as empowered by the High Court from time to time These are called courts of the Additional District Judges when exercising civil powers.

3. **Court of the District Magistrate.**—As there is no separation of the Judiciary from the Executive in this District, the District Magistrate here enjoys wider powers than enjoyed by those District Magistrates where separation of the Judiciary from the executive has already been implemented.

4. **Court of the Additional District Magistrate.**—There are two courts of this category in the District These courts try various cases for which powers are delegated from time to time by the District Magistrate. These courts have been created mainly with the aim of relieving the District Magistrate of his judicial (Criminal) work.

5. **Courts of Sub-Divisional Magistrates.**—There are five such Courts located at Jabalpur city, Katni, Sihora, Jabalpur, and Patan. Out of the two courts at Jabalpur the jurisdiction of one extends to Jabalpur city alone and of the second to the whole of Jabalpur

tahsil excluding Jabalpur city. These courts are presided by Sub-Divisional Magistrates who have got first class powers. They are also empowered to try cases under preventive sections of the Criminal Procedure Code.

6. **Courts of Judge Magistrates.**—There were 15 such courts in the District on 1st January 1962. The institution of Judge Magistrates was started in 1950. The Judge Magistrates are actually Revenue Officers who are exclusively earmarked for trial of criminal cases relating to section 30 of the Criminal Procedure Code, summary trials and committed criminal cases. They are not required to do revenue or other administrative work. This Magistracy was introduced into the Judiciary as the first step towards effecting the separation of the judiciary from the executive and a selected number of Magistrates with good judicial record among Deputy Collectors and Tahsildars were appointed to this post. They are subordinate to the District Magistrate.

7. **Courts of other Stipendiary Magistrates.**—Besides the above mentioned courts, there also exist 29 Courts of Magistrates belonging to the first, second and third class. All these Magistrates are Revenue Officers and exercising various degrees of Magisterial powers as delegated to them from time to time.

Criminal Cases

(1) **Total Number of Offences Reported.**—The total number of offences reported under the Indian Penal Code, Local and Special Laws and the Criminal Procedure Code during the 7 years (1955 to 1961) was as follows.

Head of crime	1955	1956	1957	1958	1959	1960	1961	1962
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)	(8)	(9)
Indian Penal Code	2,332	2,080	2,409	1,681	1,978	2,071	1,773	1,892
Special and Local Laws	13,361	9,924	13,348	16,459	17,084	18,169	17,980	22,221
Criminal Procedure Code.	2,254	1,637	2,499	3,483	3,850	3,951	3,605	2,604
Total	17,947	13,641	18,271	21,618	22,912	24,201	23,158	25,717

(2) Disposal of Cases by Magistrates.—The table below indicates the progress of disposal of cases by all Magistrates and also the number of persons involving during the period 1955-1961.

Year	No. of cases		No. of persons	
	Disposed	Pending	Disposed	Pending
1955	13,760	6,717	17,524	9,552
1956	13,788	5,359	20,196	7,983
1957	18,961	2,492	26,920	4,393
1958	17,635	2,990	N. A.	5,217
1959	18,778	3,274	N. A.	5,126
1960	19,109	4,684	22,690	5,944
1961	20,506	3,982	21,866	4,689
1962	21,766	5,636	25,451	6,472

(3) Persons Convicted.—The table below shows the number of persons convicted for various offences during the years 1955-61.

Nature of offences	1955	1956	1957	1958	1959	1960	1961	1962
1. Hurt	81	111	152	36	24	243	12	91
2. Cr. force and assualt	24	30	45	10	74	102	92	84
3. Offences under I.P.C.	1,276	1,559	1,649	797	1,193	1,118	790	1,099
4. Offences under Special and Local Laws	10,434	14,336	18,689	11,590	12,122	13,467	N.A.	N.A.
All offencess	11,815	16,,036	20,535	12,433	13,323	14,930	..	..

(4) **Punishment Awarded**—The table below shows the punishments awarded to offenders during the period 1955-1961.

Nature of Punishment	Number Punished							
	1955	1956	1957	1958	1959	1960	1961	1962
1. Imprisonment	573	231	470	1,070	1,150	1,283	2,757	3,252
2. Fines	10,915	15,282	19,185	10,309	11,596	13,455	11,038	13,493
3. Whippings	47	Nil	Abolished	—	—	—	—	—
4. Security taken	160	226	285	465	184	192	445	282
5. Persons dealt with under Borstal Act	..	2	2	..	..	..	..	..
Total ..	11,695	15,741	19,942	11,844	12,930	14,930	14,248	17,027

Kamania Gate, Jabalpur

High Court, Jabalpur

High Court.

The High Court of Madhya Pradesh stands at the head of the State's judicial administration, being the highest court of appeal both in Civil and Criminal cases. Located at Jabalpur, it has two Benches at Indore and Gwalior. With the coming into being of the new State of Madhya Pradesh, the High Court was established at Jabalpur on 1st November 1956. The High Court consists of a Chief Justice and such other judges, as the President may, from time to time deem necessary to appoint. The Chief Justice of the High Court is appointed by the President, in consultation with the Chief Justice of India and the Governor of the State, while in case of appointment of a Judge, the Chief Justice of the High Court is also consulted. They hold office till the attainment of the age of 62 years. Now eight judges sit at Jabalpur, three at Indore and two at Gwalior.

The judicial, administrative and other powers of the High Court are mainly derived from the Letters Patent of the High Court of Judicature at Nagpur as preserved and varied by the Constitution of India and extend to the whole of Madhya Pradesh.

Under Article 226 of the Constitution the High Court has the power to issue to any person or authority, including the State Government, directions, orders or writs, including writs in the nature of habeas corpus, mandamus petition, quo warranto and certiorari or any of them for the enforcement of any of the rights conferred by Part III of the Constitution and for any other purpose

The High Court has powers of superintendence over all courts and tribunals within its jurisdiction (Article 227). It can call for returns from such courts, make and issue general rules and prescribe forms to regulate their practices and proceedings and determine the manner and form in which books. entries and accounts shall be kept.

Nyaya Panchayats.

The year 1947 witnessed the emergence of Nyaya Panchayats in the District which were established as a result of the Passing of Central Provinces and Berar Panchayats Act 1946 (Act I of 1947). The primary idea behind their established was the association of the people with the administration of justice. They were the successors to the Village Panchayats established under the Central Provinces and Berar Village Sanitation and Public Management Act 1929 (No. II of 1920), which came into force on 1st April 1922.

The Panchayat Act referred to above has now been replaced by the Madhya Pradesh Panchayats Act, 1962 (Act VII of 1962).

There were 52 Nyaya Panchayats in the District as on 30th September, 1962. Out of these 13 were in Jabalpur tahsil, 15 in Katni-Murwara tahsil, 9 in Patan tahsil and 15 in Sihora tahsil.

Every Nyaya Panchayat consists of not less than five members, called the Panchas, elected from amongst the members of Gram Panchayats forming the Nyaya Panchayat circle. The Nyaya Panchayat elects from amongst the Panchas of the Nyaya Panchayat a Pradhan and an Up-Pradhan who preside over the Panchayat Secretary appointed by the concerned Janapada Panchayat records the proceedings and decisions of the Panchayat.

The extent of the Civil and Criminal jurisdiction of the Nyaya Panchayats is described in sections 228, 229 and 248 of the Madhya Pradesh Panchayats Act, 1962 As regards civil powers they can take congnizance of cases where the value does not exceed Rs 100 The judgements, decrees and orders of the Panchayats are final though the Sessions Judge in criminal cases and the District Judge in civil cases have been empowered to call for and examine records of such a case and pass such orders as they deem fit

Institution and Disposal of Civil Revisions.—The table below shows the position of the civil revisions in the District during the last three years 1959-1961. From the table it will be seen that the highest number of revisions for disposal was in 1959 when 121 cases were to be disposed as against 123 in 1961 and 73 only in 1960.

All these were disposed during the year and no cases were kept pending.

Civil Revisions (Panchayat Acts) 1959-62

		1959	1960	1961	1962
Pending at the beginning of year	..	..	39	[illegible]	67
Instituted during year	.	32	34	10	105
Other-wise received	..	97	..	..	..
Total	..	129	73	123	167
Cases Disposed					
1. By transfer	..	..	..	..	..
2. Otherwise	..	90	55	56	102
3. pending	..	39	18	67	65
		129	73	123	167

Separation of Judiciary from Executive

At present a common machinery for the administration of criminal justice and revenue administration exists in the District. The separation of judiciary (criminal) from the executive has not been effected though the demand has been voiced long back.

The provisions in Article 50 of Part IV (Directive Principles of State Policy) of the Constitution of India regarding the separation of judiciary from executive have been fully implemented and, as a result of it, the machinery for civil justice is independent of the executive. The postings, appointments and transfer of District Judges are made by the Governor in consultation with the High Court. Judges subordinate to the District Judge are also appointed by the Governor in consultation with the High Court and the Public Service Commission. The High Court is the supervising authority for the District Judge and other subordinate judges as contained in article 235 of the constitution.

In the case of criminal judiciary the separation has been effected at the highest level, i.e., the Court of Sessions Judge. The courts below the level of Sessions Judge are subordinate to the District Magistrate and Government by virtue of their being revenue officers. However, as a first step in this direction, the institution of Judge Magistrates was introduced from 1st July 1950, under which executive officers like Deputy Collectors and Tahsildars, designated as Judge Magistrates are now earmarked for trying criminal cases exclusively, while those exercising combined revenue and criminal powers are called Executive Magistrates. The Judge Magistrates are controlled by the District Magistrate though their case work is also liable to be inspected by the District and Sessions Judge.

BAR ASSOCIATION

Jabalpur Bar Association of the District Judge's Court was perhaps the oldest association of practising lawyers in the erstwhile state of Central Provinces and Berar. A number of legal luminaries have formed the nucleus of the District Bar Association as far back as 1885. The membership which was 10 in the beginning has consistently grown The Bar is governed by a regular constitution and has got, its own library. In 1961 the number of registered pleaders and advocates in Jabalpur was 132 and 111 respectively, thus totalling 243.

Besides Jabalpur there are practising lawyers in all the tahsils of Jabalpur District, viz., Patan, Sihora, and Murwara. There are three pleaders at Patan, eight at Sihora and 12 at Katni as on 4-4-60).

High Court Bar.—A meeting of advocates was convened in Jabalpur in October 1956 when it was decided to form the High Court Bar Association. A regular constitution was framed and the association was registered. The Bar Association came into existence with the establishment of the High Court of Madhya Pradesh at Jabalpur on 1st November 1956. The strength of the High Court Bar is 60.

INCIDENCE OF CRIMES

The crimes prevalent in the District are mainly in respect of offences against public tranquillity, affecting decency and morals, murder, attempt at murder, offences affecting life, hurt, wrongful restraint and wrongful confinement, kidnapping and forcible abduction, theft, criminal breach of trust, cheating, simple trespass counterfeiting of notes and coins, offences relating to local and special laws, offences against contempt of lawful authority or public servants, offences affecting public health, safety and conveniences, criminal force and assault and offences relating to documents and falsification of accounts.

Co-gnizable Crimes.

In the year 1950, a total of 5,523 offences were reported. After some downward trend, the number increased to 5,170 in 1956, perhaps on account of the riot that broke out in Jabalpur. Thereafter, there was again a decline in 1961, the number reported being 4,785. The crime situation, barring a set-back in 1956, gives an impression of improvement during the period 1950-1961 as shown in the table below—

Year	Dacoity	Robbery	Murder	Riot	Burglary	Cattle Theft	Thefts (Ordinary)	Kidnapping	Miscellaneous Crimes	Total
1950	18	40	32	95	1,255	107	2,519	53	1,404	5,523
1951	14	50	40	65	1,346	97	2,499	29	1,171	5,311
1952	6	36	35	53	1,038	104	2,072	38	1,032	4,414
1953	4	33	28	57	1,025	112	2,239	23	1,190	4,715
1954	5	33	38	67	942	94	1,972	31	1,067	4,249
1955	5	44	36	73	940	85	2,182	32	1,299	4,696
1956	5	49	54	92	1,064	80	2,221	47	1,558	5,170
1957	8	19	39	60	781	78	1,924	33	1,012	3,954
1958	4	25	44	65	959	186	2,138	35	1,145	4,601
1959	6	24	44	69	815	148	1,873	36	1,138	4,153
1960	2	30	51	83	740	70	1,808	36	1,306	4,126
1961	21	30	59	124	860	82	1,733	20	1,856	4,785

The foregoing table indicates the incidence of various important crimes during the years 1950-1961.

1. **Dacoity.**—The number of crimes under this head has shown a declining trend, the number having decreased from 18 in 1950 and 14 in 1951 to five in 1956 and to two in 1960. However, there was a sudden spurt in 1961 when the number stood at 21.

2. **Robbery.**—Such cases have declined from the year 1957 onwards. The highest number (50) was recorded in 1951 and the lowest (19) in the year 1957.

3. **Murder.**—On an average about 42 murders are committed every year in the District. The number was highest, i.e., 59 in 1961.

4. **Riot.**—The year 1961 also witnessed the largest number of offences under this head, i.e., 124. In other years the number has been well below this mark.

5. **Burglary.**—These offences are mostly committed by the local people. About a thousand offences of this nature are reported every year.

6. **Cattle Theft.**—Such cases ranged between 70 (1960) to 186 (1958), during the period.

7. **Theft (ordinary).** These offences are of a petty nature involving small sums of money. The highest number of ordinary thefts was reported in 1950, i.e., 2,219 and lowest in 1961, i.e., 1,733. The value of stolen property per case reported was Rs. 90 in 1956, Rs. 110 in 1957, Rs. 92 in 1958, Rs 85 in 1959 and Rs. 123 in 1960.

8. **Kidnapping.**—The highest number of cases under this head was reported in 1950 when 53 offences were reported and lowest in 1961 when 20 offences were reported.

Property Stolen.—The following table indicates the total number of cases in which property was stolen and recovered and the amount involved.

Year	Cases in which property stolen (No.)	Cases in which property was Recovered (No.)	Total Amount Stolen (Rs. '000)	Total Amount Recovered (Rs.'00)
1956	3,180	1,115	418	196
1957	2,737	1,031	449	188
1958	3,332	1,080	406	127
1959	2,895	1,070	441	89
1960	2,633	1,069	425	81

Juvenile Delinquency.—This crime is not of a serious nature in the District. Juveniles arrested and prosecuted numbered 711 in 1956, 856 in 1957, 583 in 1958, 858 in 1959 and 312 in 1960.

Disposal of Cases.

The following table indicates the manner in which the cases reported have been disposed of during the years 1951 to 1961.

Cognisable Crimes

Year		Cases Reported	Cases Investigated	Cases Sent up for trial	Persons Tried	Persons Acquitted	Persons Convicted
1951	..	5,311	4,755	2,330	3,246	440	1,995
1952	..	4,414	3,926	2,251	3,088	442	1,512
1953	..	4,715	4,160	3,120	3,862	390	2,074
1954	..	4,249	3,800	2,332	3,116	415	1,987
1955	..	4,698	4,257	1,840	2,001	381	1,052
1956	..	5,170	4,990	2,446	2,659	529	1,580
1957	..	3,954	3,594	2,347	2,165	357	1,627
1958	..	4,601	4,245	2,274	2,584	393	1.992
1959	..	4,153	3,922	2,341	2.614	389	2,061
1960	..	4,126	3,899	2,579	2,243	436	1·603
1961	..	4,785	4,639	3,664	3·719	552	2·926

A further analysis shows that above 90 per cent of the cases reported are investigated and more than 80 per cent of the cases investigated are detected.

ORGANISATION OF POLICE

The Police Force in the District was sought to be organised on sound and systematic lines only after the formation of the Central Provinces in 1861. Before this period there were only station houses and police out-posts at convenient distances. The malguzars of villages were chiefly responsible for reporting crimes to the. There was no supervising officer above the Station-House Officer except the Deputy Commissioner whose multifarious duties rarely allowed him to inspect the working of these Police Stations.

At the time the Central Provinces were formed in 1861, the only police property so called in the provinces were old *Burkandazes*. Under the direction of the Chief Commissioner, Central

Provinces, Col. Taylor recommended the reorganisation of the police force in 1861 upon what was called the new police system based on Central Provinces Act, of 1861 (Act of 1861). The police so formed were taken partly from the old *Burkandaz* establishment and partly and very largely from the old Nagpur Irregular force and the Saugor and Narmada military police, respectively both of which bodies were disbanded simultaneously with the introduction of the new Constabulary. A separate Department of Civil Police came to be constituted with the Inspector General of Police as head of the Force in the Provinces and the Superintendent of Police as head of the Police force in the District. So far the Deputy Commissioner was his own Superintendent of Police. Gradually the Superintendent of Police was given subordinate staff like Deputy Superintendents, Circle Inspectors, Inspectors, Sub-Inspectors, Head Constables and a regularly enrolled constabulary.

A sub-section was in the charge of a Sub-Inspector of Police. A Circle Inspector was in charge of five or six Police Stations.

In villages, Kotwars or village watchmen were not included in the regular cadre of this force and the Police Department did not take congizance of them. There was no village Police in the Central Provinces. The village Kotwars of this province who represented the village police and who were the village watchmen were not included in the organised constabulary. So far as the Provincial Police Department was concerned, they were simply the servants of the malguzars or village headmen. It was to the malguzars that the Police Department looked for all authorised reports and for all assistance and co-operation as regards crime. If a crime was suppressed, or a periodical report was omitted or assistance in tracing an offender or a fugitive was not promptly rendered it was against the malguzar that the Superintendent of Police lodged a complaint with the District Officer and not against the Kotwar. This system was considered to be quite a reliable and workable one.[1]

In May 1865, Bijairaghogarh tract was added to the District and an addition of one Inspector, three Chief Constables, 14 Head Constables and 72 Constables, then costing annually a little more than Rs. 10,000, was made to the District Police.

The organization of the Police Force was developed according to the Police Act of 1861. The construction of Police Stations and residential quarters for policemen commenced from 1861.

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1 C. P. Police Administration Report, 1873, p. 38.

Before this system was adopted, the police personnel used to construct their own quarters. In 1869 the probation system was introduced and constables were put on six months' probation and were also required to pass the lowest standard of examination.

The District[1] is now divided into a number of Police Stations which are conveniently demarcated on the basis of incidence of crimes, area and population and located at important places. A Police Station looks after the policing of 100-200 villages in an area of about 150—400 square miles. The staft provided to them varies from one Sub-Inspector, two Head Constables and six Constables in minor Police Stations to two Sub-Inspectors, four Head Constables and 18 Constables for tahsil Police Stations. The jurisdiction of the Circle Inspector is generally concurrent with the tahsil boundaries

The City Police scheme was introduced in the year 1943 and nine police stations were created in Jabalpur city. *viz.*, City Kotwali, Hanumantal, Omti, Lordganj, Ghamapur, Gorakhpur, Civil Lines, Cantonment and Garha. The Police force was also increased accordingly.

A separate branch was established in the District in the year 1939 to look after the political activities and foreigners. affairs An Inspector, designated as Inspector Local Intelligence Branch, is responsible for this work. Although he works under the supervision of the District Superintendent of Police, the reports on political activities are sent to the Deputy Inspector General of Police, Crimes and Railways, where the connected files are maintained. He is assisted by junior staff in consolidating political information.

With a view to controlling the Reserve Staff a Reserve Inspector, incharge of the Headquarters Lines, was posted in the year 1947 A Special Armed Force Constabulary was attached to the Headquarters Lines and one extra Reserve Inspector and Sergeants were posted to help in his work.

The work of prosecution and the conduct of police challanged cases are done by the Prosecuting Inspector selected out of the Police Inspectors. He is assisted by Prosecuting Sub-Inspectors.

There was only one District Superintendent of Police till 1945 when the post of Additional District Superintendent of Police was created. They were redesignated as Senior Superintendent of

1. Report of the Madhya Pradesh Police Reorganisation Committee, 1951-52, p. 7.

Police and Superintendent of Police with effect from 1st April 1960.

The structure of the District Police obtaining before the 15th August 1947 was as follows:

(i) District Superintendent of Police In-charge of Jabalpur District.

(ii) Additional District Superintendent of Police In-charge of police work of rural police stations of the District.

(iii) One Deputy Superintendent of Police In-charge of crime in respect of Katni and Sihora tahsils.

(iv) City Superintendent (Deputy Superintendent of Police) In-charge of city police stations.

(v) One Deputy Superintendent In-charge of office and Jabalpur tahsil crime work.

Besides, one Inspector each for Garha and Patan Circle, Sihora circle, and Katni circle and three town Inspectors for the city were also working.

The attainment of Independence in August 1947 brought greater responsibilities on the police. The police was required to keep closer contacts with the public. Certain changes also took place in its working.

In the year 1948, a separate Sub-Division was formed at Katni and one of the gazetted assistants was transferred to Katni to look after the crime work of the Katni and Sihora Circles.

With effect from 1st December 1948 a separate staff called 'District C. I. D.', was sanctioned for crime work, under the control of the D. S P. A subordinate staff consisting of an Inspector, Sub-Inspectors, Head Constables and Constables was also sanctioned.

However, in view of the changed circumstances, *i.e.*, increased population, greater political awakening, etc., a re-examination of the working of the police was considered essential and the State Government setup a Police Reorganisation Committee in the year 1951, to investigate into the matter and submit its proposals. The report of this Committee was published in 1953 and some changes as regards the District of Jabalpur were brought into force in the two subsequent years.

The number of the gazetted officers was increased. A separate unit of Special Armed Constabulary was formed under a Commandant. The staff of Special Armed Force (S. A. F.) attached to the District Executive Force was transferred to respective battalions. Two S. A. F., Companies were, however, posted for duty in the Reserve Lines, Jabalpur.

The post of Senior Reserve Inspector was upgraded to gazetted rank and the Reserve Lines were placed in the charge of Deputy Superintendent of Police. Similarly, the post of the District Police Prosecutor was also upgraded to gazetted rank, and a Deputy Superintendent of Police (Prosecution) was made in charge of the prosecution work.

Traffic in the City began to be controlled by a separate staff of the District Executive Force, specially trained in this work under the supervision of a Subedar.

Strength and Cost of Civil Police—The table below elucidates the strength and cost of Civil Police for the period 1956 to 1961:

Year		Sanctioned Strength of Police						Total	Total Cost (Rs.)
		Deputy Inspector General	Supdts. Dy. Supdts. & Asstt. Supdts.	Inspr. & Sub-Inspr. & A.S.I.	Sergents & Hd. consts.	Mounted Consts.	Foot Consts.		
(1)		(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)	(8)	(9)
1956	..	1	9	118	205	..	1,296	1,629	16,32,762
1957	..	1	9	118	198	..	1,291	1,617	19,23,675
1958	..	1	9	118	198	..	1,291	1,618	18,02,754
1959	..	1	7	128	200	..	1,299	1,635	18,87,628
1960	..	1	6	119	202	..	1,306	1,634	17,84,825
1961	..	1	6	119	205	..	1,309	1,640	21,39,126

A District Wireless Unit comprising four Head Constables and 14 Constables is stationed at Jabalpur.

There is no separate sanctioned strength for District Tear Gas and smoke Unit. However, one Sub-Inspector, two Head Constables and eight Constables from the District Executive Force are trained for Jabalpur headquarters and a similar strength for Katni Sub-Division.

The District Executive Force, besides the above, also includes, District Reserve Police, Criminal Investigation Unit, and prosecution staff.

A glance at the various gazetted officers of the Police Department posted in the District (1-1-1964) and their sphere of activities would be interesting.

1. Senior Superintendent of Police—In overall charge of the District. Has direct supervision over headquarters lines, city, and office, including, Prosecution Branch.

2. Superintendent of Police. Is in direct charge of all rural Police stations of the District Also assists S S P. in administrative control of the District.

3. Deputy Superintendent of Police (Hd qrs.). In charge of District Police office

4. Deputy Superintendent of Police (Lines). In charge of Reserve Lines, Headquarters D E. F This post was abolished in April 1960. However, one additional post of D S. P. (Hq.) was created in 1962-63 for Jabalpur and this Additional D S. P. was placed in charge of the Lines

5. City Superintendent of Police, Kotwali and Omti Division —Remained in charge of whole city till 30th October 1962. An additional post of Deputy Superintendent of Police was created for city Jabalpur. City police stations have been divided into two divisions-Omti and Kotwali, each division bening in the charge of one Deputy Superintendent of Police.

6. Sub-Divisional Police Officer, Katni Sub-division—In charge of sub-division comprising Sihora and Katni tahsil police stations.

7. Senior Police Prosecutor (Deputy Superintendent of Police Prosecution).—In charge of Prosecution branch.

8. **Deputy Superintendent of Police Special Branch (created in 1962-63)**—Is incharge of District Special Branch and S. B. S. S.

9. **Deputy Superintendent of Police Internal Defence Scheme (created in 1962-63)**—Is incharge of I. D. S. for Jabalpur.

Classification of Police Force

The Police force is classified into the following categories.

1. **District Executive Force.**—It is the most important unit of the police as it is primarily responsible for maintaining law and order and comes into close contact with people whose safety and security it has to ensure. There are 33 police stations and 12 out-posts in the District. out of which 12 police stations are in Jabalpur city itself.

The police stations of Jabalpur city are located at Omti, Civil Lines. Cantonment, Belbagh, Ghamapur, Khamaria, Kotwali, Lordganj, Gohalpur, Hanumantal, Garha and Gorakhpur. They have been divided into two divisions of six police stations each The first six comprise the Omti Division and the other six are included in Kotwali Division. Each division is the charge of one Deputy Superintendent of Police. The police stations in Jabalpur tahsil are situated at Barela, Kundam, Panagar, Bargi and Umaria. In Patan tahsil they are located at Patan, Katangi, Shahpur, Belkheda and Dhimarkheda In Sihora tahsil there are police stations at Sihora, Majhgawan, Majholi, Sleemanabad and Bahoriband. In Katni tahsil, the police stations are at Katni. Tikuri, Badawara, Barhi, Bijairaghogarh, Keymore and Rithi.

2. **Special Armed Force.**—This force is a provincial reserve of police meant to assist the District Executive Force, in maintaining order and controlling disturbances. The system of stationing armed and trained reserves at District headquarters was introduced in 1890. Two S. A. F Companies on district duty were separated from the charge of Senior Superintendent of Police, Jabalpur from 1st July 1965 and incorporated in S.A F. Training, Battalion No. 6 Jabalpur. However, two Companies of S.A.F., from different battalions continue to be on district duty. Each Company comprises one Company Commander (Inspector), three Platoon Commanders (Sub-Inspectors) 22 Head Constables, 95 Constables and nine non-combant Constables. The sanctioned strength of the Battalion in 1957 was 7 officers and 1,488 men consisting of 15 Company Commanders. 44 Platoon Commanders, 4 Assistant Sub-Inspectors, 302 Head Constables and 1,136 Constables. The actual strength of Battalion, however, was 64 officers and 1,404 men, *i.e.*, 1,468 in all.

3. **Railway Police.**—Railway Police deals with the crimes and criminals within the jurisdiction of the Railways *i.e.*, cases on platforms, waiting-halls, running trains, wagon thefts and damage to railway property, etc. Safety and security of passengers and goods also constitute the duties of this force Jabalpur is the headquarters of the Superintendent of Railway Police, Central Section. The Railway Police is under the direct control of Deputy Inspector General of Police (Crimes and Railways).

In the beginning, two different systems obtained on the two Railway lines G.I.P. Railway, and E.I. Railway, passing through the District. On the former, the police was supplied and paid by the district with an addition of one rupee to each constable from the Railway authorities. On the E.I. Railway the police were paid and clothed by the Railway company and their sphere of action was confined to railway limits but as regards reporting and investigation of crime, they were on the same footing as the District Police. Later a formula for sharing the financial expenditure was adopted under which the Government paid one-third and the Railway company bore the rest.[1] In 1908 the Railway Police became a separate body with a Superintendent of its own. In 1927 a separate D. I. G. was appointed for Crimes and Railways. In old Madhya Pradesh, there were two sections of Railway Police known as the Eastern Section and Western Section with headquarters at Raipur and Hoshangabad respectively In 1954 the headquarters of Western section were shifted to Jabalpur from Hoshangabad. After the Reorganisation of States, Jabalpur becoming the headquarters of Central Section and Indore of the Western Section.

The Central Section with headquarters at Jabalpur extends to an area of 1036 sq. miles with nine police stations and six out-posts having a strength of five Inspectors, one District Public Prosecutor, three Subedars, 18 Sub Inspectors, one Assistant Sub-Inspector, 24 Head Constables and 215 Constables The building for housing police stations and out-posts and residential quarters for the staff are being supplied by the Railway authorities. The cost of this force is recovered from Railways on percentage basis.

This Section is divided into three divisions under the charge of Inspectors, known as Divisional Inspectors with their headquarters at Jabalpur, Itarsi and Bina. Each Divisional Inspector supervises the work of police stations and out-posts within his jurisdiction. A Detective Inspector is posted to headquarters to investigate cases which the ordinary staff finds difficult.

1. C. P. Police Administration Report, 1870, p 16.

In Jabalpur District, police stations of Railway police are located at Jabalpur and Katni.

4. **Traffic Police.**—This unit is in fact a part of the District Executive Force and its responsibility lies in controlling and regulating the movement of traffic at important marketing and business centres where the number of auto-vehicles and other vehicles is large. Its strength on 1st January 1962 was one Sub-Inspector, one Subedar, six Head Constables and 27 Constables.

Home Guards.—The scheme of Home Guards came into force in this District in 1948 after the enactment of the Central Provinces and Berar Home Guards Act, 1947 (XV of 1947). Under the scheme able-bodied adults between the ages of 19 and 35 years are enrolled and imparted basic training in the art of self-defence so that in times of disorder they might act, as secondary to the police and serve the nation as a second line of defence in emergency. The objects of the organisation are (i) to ensure internal security, (2) to raise the morale of the citizens by familiarising them with the military training, (3) to impart training by a practical course of corporate life in the training centres so as to enable them to be model citizens and to help improve the social life of the community. Thus the Home Guards form a well disciplined corps of social workers activity assisting in the promotion of public security, public health, sanitation, education and social uplift in the villages and towns

The scheme was implemented in this District in August 1948. The Company Commandant is the head of the organisation in the District. He is assisted in the efficient performance of his duties by two instructors who are posted at Jabalpur and Sihora. A training camp is held at these places for rural Home Guards consisting of 24 trainees in each batch The period of training for the Home Guards is three months. Till 1961, 880 persons have been trained as Home Guards in the District

Constables's Training School. Jabalpur.

Located at Ranjhi in Jabalpur, overlooking the Jabalpur lake, this is the best of the three such institutions functioning in Madhya Pradesh Originally designed to prepare constables for the more responsible post of Head Constables it was opened on 1st January 1937 Its foundation stone was laid earlier on August 11, 1936 by the then Governor of C. P and Berar, the late H. E. Dr E. Raghwendra Rao Its in-take capacity was 200

Hindi-speaking literate constables selected half-yearly by the District Superintendents of Police. Its counterpart in Nagpur trained the literate constables of Marathi speaking districts. Duration of training was 5½ months Instruction was given in law, procedure and practical work, arithmetic, geography, Hindi and drill. Besides, general ability, conduct and proficiency in games were given due weight. A student had to obtain a minimum of 70 per cent marks for success.

A senior Deputy Superintendent of Police, designated as Superintendent was the administrative head of the institution. He was assisted by a Chief Drill Inspector (of the rank of Inspector, Drill), Inspectors (of the rank of Head constables) and Masters (Sub-Inspectors of Police and drawn from Education Department).

The school underwent a change in the year 1955 when the police force was confronted with the major problem of enforcing uniformity in the police force drawn from various regions with a view to verying standards of administration, with the entire police into a compact unit. So, in order to raise the prevailing standard and produce better constabulary, the school has since been utilized to train enlisted recruits of Mahakoshal region. They have to undergo a course of rigorous training for three months. Four batches, each consisting of 200 traines are turned out each year.

The school is well-equipped with extensive play-fields, library, recreation rooms, medical facilities and vegetables and Fruit gardens.

A student has to secure 60 per cent marks for passing the examination The school bell rings at 4.30 in the morning and the last-post is sounded at 10 p.m.

JAILS AND LOCK-UPS

The Central Jail of the District is located at Jabalpur. The building was originally constructed in 1854 and was throughly renovated by 1871.

The Jail has a capacity for accommodating a total number of 1,442 prisoners. The Jail is divided into four sections, viz., Eastern Section, Western Section, Hospital Section and Female Section, consisting of ten, eight, five and two barracks, respectively. Male and female prisoners are kept in separate wards. Male prisoners under 21 years of age, unconvicted criminal prisoners, civil prisoners and prisoners under sentence of death are kept apart from other

prisoners. Prisoners are confined either in association in barracks or individually in cells. There are 54 cells in male prisoners' section, three in female section and two attached to the hospital ward.

The Jail is governed by the Madhya Pradesh Jail Manual which contains provisions regarding the establishment and management of Jails, confinement and treatment of prisoners and maintenance of discipline, etc.

The prisoners are given considerate treatment by the Jail staff so as to create an atmosphere of a well-adjusted home. A number of activities are organised befitting their aptitudes with a view to rehabilitating them.

Vocational Training.—Many industries are run in the Jail, the principal of which are carpentry, blacksmithy, handweaving of cotton and wollen blankets, manufacture of *dari,* carpet, *khadi, niwar,* tape and gaiters, dyeing and bleaching cane work; bamboo-chick making, tailoring tent-manufacture, gonapatti weaving, and sweet oil-pressing Blankets and tents are supplied in bulk to jail and other Government Departments.

The prisoners are classified as hard labour, medium labour and light labour and targets of out-turn are fixed on the same basis. They have to work on week days for eight hours daily. On satisfactory performance, remission in sentence and cash wages are also awarded.

Educational Facilities—Arrangements exist for teaching the prisoners upto IV Primary standard. Trained teachers are employed for this purpose.

Recreation.—The Jail has radio-set fitted with loud-speakers in each of the two sectors of the Jail. Every evening prisoners listen to the programme. Facilities have been provided for music, both vocal and instrumental and *bhajans*. There is a general prayer-hall, where besides congregational prayers, shows and dramas are put up. Steps are taken to see that the prisoners mantain there physical health Prisoners Welfare Day is celebrated every year with great enthusiasm.

Religion and Moral Instruction.—A Reformist preacher imparts religious and moral instruction to the prisoners on every Sunday. It was proposed to appoint one lady reformist preacher in the model jail for female prisoners at Jabalpur for which a provision for Rs. 5,000 was made in the Third Five Year Plan

In addition a State Home for after-care of men discharged from correctional Institutions was started in April, 1960. Nine inmates were admitted within the year and crafts like tailoring chick-making etc., were being taught to them.

Medical Facilities.—Suitable medical staff is employed to look after the health of the prisoners A small dairy is also maintained which supplies milk exclusiveiy for the prisoners.

Library.—The Jail maintains a library and a reading-room for the benefit of the literate population of the prisoners. The library is being enriched annually by the addition of books.

Parole.—Prisoners having senences of three years or more are recommended for temporary please of 10 days each year after satisfactorily completing sentence of two years. The expenditure involved in visiting his home during this period is borne by the Jail.

Board of Visitors.—A Board of Visitors has been constituted to ensure that rules and regulations governing the administration of Jail are properly carried out. The members inspect the jail, meet prisoners, hear their complaints and note their observations in the Visitors book which are forwarded to the Inspector-General of Prisons.

Juvenile Delinquency.—Juveniles (between the age group of 9 and 16 years) and juvenile adults (between the age group 16 and 21 years) undergoing sentence of imprisonment for less than four months are confined to separate wards of the Jail. Those serving sentence of over four months are transferred either to Reformatory School, Seoni or Borstal Institute, Narsimhapur to serve their sentence.

Expenditure.—A sum of Rs. 5.24 lakhs was spent in the year 1962 for guarding and maintaining the prisoners which worked out to Rs. 326.5 per head. Other major items of expenditure were establishment (Rs. 1 8 lakhs), diet (2.1 lakhs), clothing and bedding (Rs. 0.56 lakhs).

Political Prisoners.—The prisoners of this class are kept separate from all other prisoners. They are governed by special rules framed by Government from time to time.

Special Class of Prisoners.—Prisoners of superior social status are given this class. They are given preferential treatment as per rules of the Madhya Pradesh Jail Manual (Revised Edition 1946).

CHAPTER XIII

OTHER DEPARTMENTS

The organisational set-up of some of the departments not dealt with earlier in Chapter X (General Administration) is given below.

Forest Department

The head of the Forest department of the State is the Chief Conservator of Forests, whose headquarters is at Rewa. The whole State is divided into territorial circles for administrative purposes, and at the head of each circle is a Conservator of Forests. Jabalpur is the headquarters of the Conservator of Forests, Central Circle with effect from 1st June 1960. Following the reconstitution of the territorial divisions on February 1, 1962, the Seoni, Chhindwara and Satpura Forest Divisions of this circle were transferred to the Balaghat circle. The Central Circle, Jabalpur, now comprises Forest Divisions of Sagar, Damoh, North Mandla, Jabalpur and South Mandla covering an area of 6182 Sq. miles. The executive staff of the Circle consists of 1 Conservator, 5 Deputy Conservators, 12 Assistant Conservators, 44 Forest Rangers, 60 Deputy Rangers, 113 Foresters, and 1056 Forest Guards.

The Jabalpur Division, which includes the Jabalpur and Narsimhapur districts, was held by the Divisional Forest Officer, Jabalpur. This position continued upto the 1st December 1962, when it was reorganised to comprise Jabalpur District alone. Its position on the 2nd December 1962 was as follows :

Distr	Reserved Forest Sq. miles	Protected Forest Sq. miles	Total Sq. miles
Jabal	326	569	895

There is a Forest sub-division at Katni under an Assistant Conservator of Forests. The Division is divided into six executive parts called ranges, each of which is in charge of a Ranger. The ranges are further divided into 16 Range Assistant' Circles, which in turn are sub-divided into 125 Forest Guard Beats as shown below: —

Name of Range	Headquarters	Number of Range Assistant's circles	Number of Beats
1. Jabalpur	Jabalpur ..	3	23
2. Sihora	Sihora	3	27
3. Katni	Katni	2	19
4. Kundam	Jabalpur ..	3	24
5. Barhi	Barhi ..	2	12
6. Bargi	Bargi	3	20
Total ..		16	125

The Divisional Forest Officer is directly responsible for the protection, exploitation, and regeneration of the forests according to the sanctioned Working Plans and other government orders. He conducts sales, enters into contracts, supplies material to departments and public, realises revenue, and controls expenditure. He deals finally with forest offence cases, having power to compound the same. In his duties he is assisted by two Assistant Conservators, of whom one is stationed at Katni as Sub-Divisional Officer (Forests), seven Rangers, 10 Deputy Rangers, 21 Foresters and 227 Guards.

Agriculture Department

Jabalpur being a Divisional headquarters a Joint Director of Agriculture is posted here. He is in charge of the activities of the department for the eight districts of the division. He is assisted in this behalf by Assistant Directors of Agriculture who are subject matter specialists for marketing, information, accounts and establishment, soil conservation, commodities including horticulture, and supply schemes such as, plant protection, seed farms, fertilizers, etc.

The work relating to the department in Jabalpur District is in the charge of a Deputy Director of Agriculture who is assisted by an Assistant Director of Agriculture for field work. Both in administrative and technical matters, the Deputy Director is directly responsible to the Joint Director of Agriculture, Jabalpur. The Deputy Director has under him four Agriculture Assistants to assist him in improved seeds and Government Farms, information, marketing, and plant protection.

There are three Government Farms in the District managed by Farm Managers who are under the administrative control of the Deputy Director of Agriculture. Of these, one is situated at Piprodh in Katni tahsil and the other two at Lakhanwara and Khamaria in Jabalpur tahsil.

The District has 15 Development Blocks where Agriculture work is being carried out with the help of Agriculture Extension Officers attached to the Blocks. They work under the direct supervision of the Deputy Director.

The District has also been provided with the services of two Assistant Soil Conservation Officers, one each at Jabalpur and Katni. Each of them is assisted by 5 Agriculture Assistants and 20 Surveyors.

At Adhartal, a suburb of Jabalpur city, is situated the Madhya Pradesh Agriculture Research Institute which conducts research on subject like Agronomy, Chemistry, Entomology, Plant Pathology, etc. The Institute which has been functioning since 1963, is presently under the control of Jawaharlal Nehru Krishi Viswavidyalaya, Jabalpur.

Veterinary Department

The Veterinary Department in the Jabalpur District is under the control of the District Livestock Officer since 1950. Treatment of animal-diseases, control of epidemics, and cattle improvement form the main function of the department. In 1963-64 there were 12 Veterinary hospitals in the district, each under the management of a Veterinary Assistant Surgeon, a Compounder and stockman. Of these, four were located in tahsil headquarters and the rest at 1. Barela, 2. Bohriband 3. Shahpura 4. Badwara 5. Dhimarkheda 6. Kundam 7. Bijairaghogarh and 8. Bargi.

A special post of a Veterinary Assistant Surgeon, designated as the Mobile Unit Officer, has been provided to render aid in out-of-the-way places. There were, in addition, 28 outlying dispensaries, each managed by the stockman at 1. Panagar 2. Bagharji 3. Majholi 4. Umaripan 5. Sleemanabad 6. Bakal 7. Kanwara 8. Khitoli 9. Bilheri 10. Katangi 11. Belkhera 12. Chargawan (Patan tahsil) 13 Majhgawan 14. Surtalai 15. Sagda 16. Khamtara 17 Pipariakalan 18. Chourai 19. Kaladetuhi 20. Nunsar 21. Sihundi 22. Piprodh 23. Deorihatari 24. Hirdenagar 25. Bhasia 26. Ghat Piparia 27. Karatalai and 28. Chargowan (Sihora Tahsil). The Department also maintains five Key Village Centres, nine Cattle Breeding Extension Units, seven Artificial Insemination Centres, and three Poultry Units in the district. The Key Village Centres are under the stockmen, while other units are attached to the veterinary dispensaries.

The District Live-stock Officer is assisted by 13 Veterinary Assistant Surgeons, 2 Live-Stock Inspectors, 1 Fieldman, 5 Stock Supervisors, 26 Stockmen and 14 Veterinary Compounders. In addition, for each Block area there is a Veterinary Extension Officer and one Stockman working under the control of the Block Development Officer.

The District Live-stock Officer work under the control of the Deputy Director of Veterinary Services, Jabalpur, who is in charge of eight districts. *viz.* Jabalpur, Mandla, Balaghat, Seoni, Chhindwara, Narsimhapur, Sagar and Damoh. Under him there is a Poultry Inspector, who is in charge of poultry development. With a view to augmenting the milk supply, a Milk Union

Scheme has been sanctioned by the Government. At present it is a pilot project supplying 1000 litres of milk a day and is being looked after by a General Manager. He is assisted by a Village Milk Production Organiser and a Milk Distribution Officer

Fisheries Department

The development of the fisheries of the district engaged the attention of the Government first in 1947-48. As a result of this the Fisheries office at Nagpur was shifted to Jabalpur in the following year. The Jabalpur District now falls under the charge of a Fisheries Officer who looks after two districts, namely, Jabalpur and Mandla. His main duties are survey and selection of tank for the propagation of pisciculture. He is also expected to provide technical guidance to private individuals, cooperative societies and the village Panchayats. He is assisted in his work by a field staff of two Fisheries Inspectors and two Fisheries Jamadars, one each posted at Jabalpur and Mandla. The following figures represent the progress of this department during the year 1957 to 1961:—

Year.		TotalFry stocked in lakhs	Anticipated Field in Maunds
1957-58	..	5.56	974
1958-59	..	4.22	385
1959-60	..	3.34	438
1960-61	..	1.61	113
1961-62	..	5.97	177

There is an office of the Assistant Research Officer at Jabalpur, working under the supervision of the Chief Fisheries Officer, Bhopal, since 1961. He is charged with the investigation of *trapa-cum-fish* culture scheme in the Jabalpur revenue division

The aim of inquiry is to work out economics of combined culture of fish in *trapa* cultivation tanks and also to look into the effects of *trapa* cultivation in making the environments suitable for fish breeding. This scheme has been taken up under the aegis of the Indian Council of Agricultural Research for a period of three years in the initial stage.

Industries Department

The work of the department of the Industries is, mainly, confined to the development and progress of the small-scale and large-

scale industries in the State. The Officer directly in charge of the industries in the Jabalpur District is the Assistant Director of Industries. His miscellaneous duties extend to investigation into applications from parties for loans and for the Essentiality Certificate in connection with the import, export and purchase of the controlled material, such as, iron and steel, cement, coal, etc. He is also responsible for the management of the District Emporium. Raw Material Depot and the Industrial Estate One Fruit Preservation Officer, with headquarters at Jabalpur, is also working under his direction. The Assistant Director is assisted by one Inspector of Industries.

Since 1st January 1964, Office of the Deputy Director of Industries has been established at the Industrial Estate, Jabalpur. In addition to these, there are Extension Officers working in each block under the over-all control of the Block Development Officer.

There is an office of the Deputy Registrar (Handloom) working since 1962. He is responsible for the development of Handloom industries in the districts of Jabalpur, Seoni Chhindwara, Balaghat and Narsimhapur. To achieve this objective he arranges loans, under the Reserve Bank of India Scheme, to weavers' co-operative Societies. He works in close collaboration with the State Industries Department. However, the staff connected with handloom industries has been transferred to the Cooperative Department since November 1963.

The Inspector of Boilers also has his office located at Jabalpur.

Public Works Department

Since 1955 the Public Works Department deals with (1) Roads and Buildings and (2) Irrigation. These are dealt witth separately by district branches of the department.

Roads and Buildings

Roads and Buildings—For the administrative purposes the Roads and Buildings branch in the District is placed in charge of the Superintending Engineer, whose jurisdiction includes all districts in Jabalpur revenue division. He is responsible for the administration and general professional control of public works in charge of the

officers of the department within his circle. Under him there are three divisions with headquarters at Jabalpur. Each of these divisions is divided into sub-divisions as shown below :

1. Jabalpur Division :

(a) Head-Quarter sub-division, Jabalpur.

(b) Roads sub-division, Jabalpur.

(c) Katni-sub-division, Katni.

(d) Barmanghat sub-division (Narsimhapur District).

(e) Sihora sub-division, Sihora.

(f) Electrical and Mechanical sub-division, No. 1, Jabalpur

2. Construction Division No. 1 :

(a) Construction sub-division No. I started in 1946, it looks after the Government Engineering College.

(b) Construction sub-division No. II—It deals with the Maha koshal Mahavidyalaya, Jabalpur.

(c) Construction sub-division No. III—It is responsible for construction of Home Science College.

(d) Electrical and Mechanical Sub-Division No. 2 Jabalpur.

3 Construction Division No. II

It has been split up into three units, namely, Construction sub-division Nos. IV, V and sub-division of High Court, for dealing with the Medical College, Agricultural College and the extension of High Court Buildings, respectively. The Executive Engineers are responsible for the execution and management of all works within these divisions. The administrative machinery in each sub-division comprises one Assistant Engineer, six Overseers, two sub-Overseers and one Assistant Draughtsman and one tracer.

Irrigation.—Irrigation works in the District fall under the charge of the Superintending Engineer, Narmada Circle, Jabalpur, who works under the administrative control of the Chief Engineer, Public Works Department (Irrigation), Raipur.

There are 3 divisions in this circle, *viz.*, (1) Jabalpur Irrigation division (2) Hiran Irrigation division and (3) The Irrigation division, Damoh. Of these the first two divisions are in Jabalpur District. The Jabalpur Irrigation division is responsible for survey and construction of irrigation works, while the other division

looks after the maintenance of the irrigation works besides undertaking construction work. These divisions comprise the following sub-divisions :

1. Irrigation Division Jabalpur :

(a) Survey Irrigation sub-division, Jabalpur.
(b) Irrigation sub-division, Datla, tahsil Murwara.
(c) Thakra Irrigation sub-division, Thakra, tahsil Murwara.
(d) Barnoo Irrigation sub-division, tahsil Sihora.

2. Hiran Irrigation Division :

(a) Irrigation sub-division, Jabalpur.
(b) Minor Irrigation sub-division, Jabalpur.
(c) Simyar Irrigation sub-division, tahsil Murwara.
(d) Bohriband sub-division, tahsil Sihora.

Each division is under an Executive Engineer who is responsible to the Superintending Engineer for the management of all works within his division. Each sub-division is in charge of a Sub-Divisional Officer (Assistant Engineer) who is responsible to the Executive Engineer for the execution and maintenance of works lying in his charge. He in turn is assisted by six overseers, two sub-overseers, one Assistant draughtsman and one tracer.

The revenue establishment of this circle is headed by a Canal Deputy Collector, who is assisted by one Irrigation Inspector and 25 Amins. The Canal Deputy-Collector, who is the revenue Assistant of the Executive Engineer, is responsible for assessment of revenue, executing agreements with cultivators for supply of water and maintenance of records. He performs these duties with respect to eight other districts, besides Jabalpur. He is vested with magisterial powers to try cases under the Central Provinces Irrigation Act.

Public Health Engineering Department

There are two Divisions of Public Health Engineering Department, located at Jabalpur. Each Division is in charge of an Executive Engineer. The construction Division looks after water works at Jabalpur and Katni, besides holding charge of works of Sagar and Damoh districts. There are five Sub-Divisions under this Division. Of these two are located at Jabalpur and one each at Katni, Sagar and Damoh.

The other Division looks after the Public Health Engineering works of Jabalpur and Narsimhapur districts. It also has five Sub-Divisions under it, three of which are located at Jabalpur, while the

other two are at Narsimhapur and Chhindwara. This Division also looks after the arrangements of water-supply in 44 fairs of Mahakoshal region and it is proposed to cover the Vindhya Pradesh region also under this scheme.

The two divisions are under the administrative control of the Deputy Public Health Engineer, Jabalpur. He also controls the work of the department in Chhindwara, Balaghat, Rewa, Chhattarpur and Raipur.

Madhya Pradesh Electricity Board.—The Madhya Pradesh Electricity Board is a Corporate body formed by the State under Sub-Section (1) of Section 5 of Electricity (Supply) Act of 1948, and is charged with the general duty of promoting the co-ordinated development of generation, supply and distribution of electric power within the State. The headquarters of the Board are located at Jabalpur. It comprises a Chairman, and two members who look after the finance and technical side of the work. For the purpose of administration the State is divided into circles each headed by a Superintending Engineer. Each circle is further divided into divisions and sub-divisions, each under the charge of an Executive Engineer and Assistant Engineer respectively.

The work regarding electricity schemes in the Jabalpur District falls within the jurisdiction of the Superintending Engineer, Central Circle, Madhya Pradesh Electricity Board, Jabalpur, and the Divisional Engineer Jabalpur Division, Jabalpur. The Office of the Superintending Engineer Central Circle, was formed on the 1st August 1958 with the following Divisions under its administrative control (1) Satna Division (2) Jabalpur Division (3) Sagar Division (4) Chhindwara Division (5) Jabalpur Civil Division. He is assisted by four Assistant Engineers and other subordinate staff.

The Divisional Engineer, Jabalpur Division, Madhya Pradesh Electricity Board, Jabalpur, is in charge of the districts of the Jabalpur, Shahdol, Narsimhapur and Mandla. Under him are eight Assistant Engineers and other non-gazetted staff. For operation and maintenance work the Jabalpur District constitutes a sub-division under the control of an Assistant Engineer while the other two sub-divisions, have their headquarters at Narsimhapur and Shahdol, respectively. Likewise, three Assistant Engineers look after the construction work in the District.

Sales Tax.—For the administration of the Sales Tax Act, the revenue districts of Jabalpur and Mandla have been divided into two circles, each under a Sales Tax Officer, *viz;* Jabalpur Circle I and

Jabalpur Circle II. The former comprises the revenue district of Mandla and Katni tahsil of Jabalpur District along with Lordgunj, Gorakhpur, Cantonment, and Civil Station wards of Jabalpur city. The residuary part of Jabalpur with tahsils of Sihora, Jabalpur and Patan are grouped under Circle II. Each Circle is staffed by two Sales Tax Officers, two Assistant Sales Tax Officers, and six and four Sales Tax Inspectors for Jabalpur circle I and II, respectively.

In Mandla, a Sub-Circle, in charge of the Assistant Sales Tax Officer was created on May 1st 1962. Both the Sales Tax Officers, Jabalpur Circle I and II, have been invested with the powers of additional Tahsildars for purpose of recovering tax arrears.

The following offices of Sales Tax department are also located at Jabalpur.

1. **Deputy Commissioner of Sales Tax.**—His administrative jurisdiction extends over the entire Mahakoshal and Vindhya Pradesh region excluding districts of Nimar and Datia. He hears the first appeals against the original orders of the Assistant Commissioner.

2. **Regional Assistant Sales Tax Commissioner.**—This officer of Jabalpur region, has the assessment and administrative jurisdiction over the entire Jabalpur revenue division. He has been invested with the powers of an Additional Collector to recover sales-tax as arrears of land revenue.

3. **Appellate Assistant Commissioner of Sales Tax, Jabalpur region, Jabalpur.**—He enjoys the appellate powers for hearing appeals on the orders of the Sales Tax Officers of Jabalpur Circles I and II, Chhindwara Circle, Balaghat Circle, (including Seoni), Sagar Circle (including Damoh), and Narsimhapur Circle.

Employment Exchange.—The National employment service, which came into existence as a post-war measure for the resettlement of ex-servicemen was handed over to the State Government on the 1st November 1956. Since then, the organization has been functioning under the Directorate of Employment and Training.

The Directorate of Employment and Training, Jabalpur, functions as a controlling office for various Employment Exchanges and the Industrial Training Institutes throughout the State of Madhya Pradesh. It is also responsible for the implementation and administration of the various man-power and employment schemes of the Directorate General of Employment and Training of the Union Ministry of Labour and Employment. Besides, it also administers the scheme for the training of Tribal boys. The staff consists of a Director, two Deputy Directors, one incharge of Employment and the other of training wing, a State Emploment Officer, and Employment Market Information Officer, a Vocational Guidance Officer, an Employment Liaison Officer, an Occupational Research Officer, two Employment Officers and others.

The State Employment Exchange, Jabalpur, previously called the Sub-Regional Employment Exchange, in addition to performing the normal functions of an Employment exchange also acts as the State'Clearing House' for circulating unfilled and outstanding vacancies so as to attract suitable and willing candidates against the unfilled vacancies from other Exchange areas. The State employment Exchange is under the charge of a State Employment Officer, assisted by a Deputy State Employment Officer, and other officers. The Administrative control is exercised by the Directorate of Employment and Training, Jabalpur.

There is a Vocational Guidance Unit at the Exchange, which renders vocational guidance to the youth, adult and other employment seekers, in the selection and choice of suitable careers, suiting their aptitudes, intellectual and physical needs, in the context of the prevailing employment market in the State.

With a view to helping the rural folk in matters of employment assistance and information, and also to check the unnecessary and heavy exodus of the village unskilled population to the urban areas, an Employment Information and Assistance Bureau was opened at Sihora Community Development Block, which has since been shifted to Narsimhapur.

There is an Industrial Exchange at Katni, catering to the industries located at Katni and Keymore. A University Employment Information Guidance Bureau is recently set up at Jabalpur to help the University alumni in matters of employment information, guidance and assistance.

Co-operative Department—The Co-operative Department in the Jabalpur District is in the administrative charge of the Assistant Registrar, Co-operative Societies.

Jabalpur. Over him is the Deputy Registrar, Co-operative Societies, Jabalpur, who has jurisdiction over eight districts, viz., Sagar, Jabalpur, Mandla, Chhindwara, Balaghat, Damoh, Nasimhapur and Seoni. Administratively the Assistant Registrar is responsible for the audit inspection and supervision of various types of Cooperative Societies in the districts. He is assisted in his duties by an Audit Officer, three Senior Co-operative Inspectors, one Marketing Inspector, 12 Co-operative Inspectors, 31 Sub-Auditors and four Managers. With the introduction of National Extension Service and Community Development Projects in the district, the posts of 13 Co-operative Extension Officers have been created to look into the Development activities of the District.

The staff engaged in hadloom industry attached to the Industries department has been transferred to the control of the Assistant Registrar, Co-operative Societies, Jabalpur, from the month of November 1963. The staff, mainly provided for the development of Handloom Cooperatives and other Industrial Cooperatives of the District, consists of four Circle Auditors (Handlooms), one Stamping Inspector, two Powerloom Teachers, and seven Managers.

Office of the Assistant Labour Commissioner—The Assistant Labour Commissioner, Jabalpur, is the appropriate authority to deal with labour organisation, information and welfare matters in the revenue divisions of Rewa and Jabalpur. He has under him three Labour Officers, posted at Satna, Sagar and Katni and two Assistant Labour Officers at Jabalpur. In addition there are five Labour inspectors, three Labour Welfare Superintendents for the entire region, two Motor Transport Inspectors and six Labour Sub-Inspectors.

The main function of these officers is to watch the interests of the labour and promote harmonious relations between employers and employees. To facilitate their work various powers have been conferred on them by labour enactments.

Office of the Inspector of Factories.—The Factory Department is under the administrative control of the Commissioner of Labour, but the Chief Inspector of Factories has complete control over the technical side of the work of the department within the State. It is responsible for the administration of the Factories Act as well as Payment of Wages Act, Work-Men's Compensation Act, Maternity Benefit Act etc. The Department has a divisional office at Jabalpur in charge of an Inspector of Factories whose jurisdiction extends over the revenue divisions of Rewa and Jabalpur.

CHAPTER XIV

LOCAL SELF GOVERNMENT

A study of early records shows there existed a form of local government throughout the length and breadth of Saugor and Nerbudda Territories, almost uniform in its character and structure. This was the little village commune with its own organisation and government and its little staff of functionaries, artisans and traders. A detailed account of their working, particularly in the judicial field, is given in the contemporary State papers. Sir Richard Temple admits the existence of such bodies in the northern parts of the Central Provinces. Similar views were expressed by Crosthwaite in his speech introducing the C P. Local Self-Government Bill before the Governor-General's Council on 12th January, 1883. "Under the ancient system of the country, each village managed its own affairs, and although there is little trace in the Central Provinces of those complicated village committes which still thrive in Northern India, yet the system of village management was, until a comparatively recent date, complete Every village had its headman or 'patel' who acted as the guide, agent and leader of the village, By the Maratha revenue system, under which the village community was jointly responsible for the whole revenue, and all details of assessment were left to the villagers themselves, the people were forced to act together under their headman, and to arrange their own affairs."

But the coming of the British in this region tended to upset this ancient system. History shows that the excessive centralisation of executive and judicial powers in the hands of the government officials deprived the village functionaries of their age long powers and influence. The deliberate introduction of land-lordism and the *ryotwari* system as against the *Mauzawari* or village tenure system, dealt almost a death blow to the corporate life of the village communities

The origin of municipal administration in this tract is some what obscure, but prior to 1864 separate funds for local administration called the *'basti funds'* existed in at least Jabalpur and Nagpur[1] Their income consisted mainly of transit duties including octroi from

1. Memorandum on the development of local Self-Government bodies in the Central Provinces and Berar, 1928-29, p. 1

which the cost of police was defrayed, the balance being made available for local improvements. These duties were, in fact the relics of the imposts levied by the Maratha rulers in their dominations.[1] In 1864 this form of administration was legalised by the application of the City of Lucknow Municipal Committee Act of 1864 to the town Jabalpur, and three years later the Punjab Municipal Committees. Act XV of 1867 was extended to the towns of Jabalpur and Sihora.[2] In 1868 the franchise was introduced in these municipal towns, and they were allowed to elect two-thirds of the members, while the rest were official members.[3] Lord Mayo's Resolution of 1870 emphasised the "ideal of the increased association of Indians in the administration and indicated the extension of municipal self-government as the most promising field for its attainment" Accordingly the first municipal Act of this province was passed in 1873 (II of 1873), and remained in force till 1883 when the C. P. Local Self Government Act I of that year was introduced. The municipality of Murwara was constituted in 1874. These Municipalities derived their income, chiefly from the octori and it was "devoted first of all to the maintenance of an efficient police, and then for education, dispensaries, construction, maintenance, repairs and conservancy of public streets, roads, drains, tanks, and water courses".[4] In 1881, the municipalities were relieved of the police duty which then became a provincial responsibility.

Lord Ripon's Resolution of 1882 marked a decisive advance in the policy of decentralisation through the agency of local government. "In advocating the extension of local self Government ment" says the memorable document, "and the adoption of this principle in the management of branches of local affairs the Governor-General in council does not suppose that the work will be in the first instance better done than if it remained in the sole hands of government districts officers It is not primarly, with a view to improvement in adminisration that this measure is put forward and supported It is chiefly desirable as an instrument of political and popular education. Following the Ripon pronouncement the Central Provinces Local Self-Government Act I of 1883 and C. P. Municipal Act XVIII of 1889 were passed, providing wider exten-

1. C. P. Administration Report, 1872-73, p 75
2. Memorandum on the development of local Self Government bodies in the Central Provinces and Berar 1928-29, p 1
3. C. P Administration Report, 1872-73 p 75
4. *Ibid*, 1876-77, p XVI

sion of municipal adminstration. The relative position of municipalities in the district, as it stood in 1895-96, is shiwn below:—

Name		Population	Elected Members	Nominated Members	Income in rupees
(1)		(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
Jabalpur	..	84481	20	7	2.314
Sihora	..	4798	6	2	823
Murwara	..	9460	8	2	1,064

Subsequently in two Resolutions of 1896 and 1897 Lord Elgin's Government proposed further measures of progress in local administration. The Act of 1889 was replaced by the Act XVI of 1903 in order to keep pace with the progressive ideas Accordingly, 3 municipalities in the District were reconstituted. Then followed the Government of India Act, 1919. In common with the rest of the country the principles set forth in them were embodied in the Central Provinces and Berar Municipalities Act II of 1922, which came into force in July 1923. This Act aimed at lowering the franchise, at increasing the elected element in local bodies to the extent of making it the unquestioned immediate arbiter of policy in local affairs, and at passing executive direction into non-official hands. In 1948, the City of Jabalpur Corporation Act III was passed and accordingly a Corporation was established at Jabalpur on June 1. 1950. This could be described as a land-mark in the progress of urban local self government in the Jabalpur District.

Although a beginning was made in 1864 towards the establishment of municipal administration, the rural areas engaged the attention first in 1882. Prior to this, there existed a number of committees in the District maintained by local funds which were administered by the local committees. The Local Rates Act of 1871, however, amalgamated the existing committees into a single committee styled the 'Local Fund Committee', which was made responsible for the maintenance of roads, schools and dispensaries. Regarding the working of these Local Committees, John Morris, the then Chief Commissioner of the Province, wrote: "District Fund Committees have hitherto been little more than bodies of respectable native gentlemen with whom the Deputy Commissioner and other local officers might take counsel for the public good. They have been assembled at headquarters and have not been in any way

representative of the District generally, but their main use has been as exponents of native opinion in regard to measures which the local officers have under contemplation."[1] In pursuance of Ripon Resolution the Jabalpur Council with its three Local Boards each having jurisdiction over one tahsil came into existence in the year 1883. The consitution of the District council and Local boards in 1899-1900 was as under:—

Name	Area in Sq miles	Populaton	Elected Members	Nominated
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
District Council ..	3884	6,48 407	14	6
Jabalpur Local Board	1511	2,77,408	29	5
Sihora Local Board ..	1196	2,07,408	29	5
Murwara Local Board	1177	1,63.848	17	3

The District Council and Local Boards were composed of elected and nominated members, the number of later being not more than one-third of the total membership. Three Tahsildars and a Naib-Tahsildars were members of the Local Boards. An Assistant Commissioner and an Extra Assistant Commissioner were also on the District Council. The presiding officers were elected but were not vested with executive powers. The income of the District Council in 1910-11 was Rs. 1,17,540 as against Rs. 58,162 in 1900-01 and Rs. 56,393 in 1891-92. The principal heads of receipts were local rates, fines, government contributions, Nazul rents and fees. The expenditure in 1910-11 stood at Rs. 10,75,594 as against Rs. 67,288 in 1900-01 and Rs. 50089 in 1891-92. The chief items were establishment, education, medical, civil works, and cattle pounds. A total of 104 Primary schools, six Middle schools, five *sarais*, 55 pounds, one Veterinary Dispensary, besides minor roads with ferries on them outside municipal area, were under the management of the District Council. It also helped to maintain the Victoria Dispensary, the city and branch dispensaries at Patan, Panagar (Mission, male and female) Sihora, Murwara and Bijairaghogarh. The Local Boards had no independent income but performed inspection, duty and supervised the expenditure for civil works.

Consequent on the division of the Jabalpur tahsil into tahsil of Jabalpur and Patan, a separate Local Board was formed for the Patan tahsil and its constitution was sanctioned in 1913. The posi-

1. Extract from Communication from the Secretary to the Chief Commissioner, Central Provinces, to the Secretary to the Government of India. Legislative Department No. 3712-217 dated 29-9-1882.

tion of the District Council and Local Board in 1913-14 was as under:—

Name	Area in sq. miles	Population	Elected members	Nominated members
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
District Council ..	3910	6,23,997	17	8
Jabalpur Local Board	1116	1,61,206	16	7 (3)
Patan Local Board ..	424	97467	11	4
Sihora Local Board ..	1181	1,65,087	17	3
Murwara Local Board	1189	1,99,437	20	3

This continued until 1923-24, when general election to the District Council and Local Boards were held for the first time under the C. P. and Berar Local Government Act of 1920. According to the provisions of the Act the Jabalpur District was divided into four groups which were further sub-divided into 58 circles. The position of the re-constituted bodies is shown below:—

Name ..	Population	Number of Members			
		Ex-officio	Nominated	Elected	Selected
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)
District Council	6,56,951	1	5	20	5
Jabalpur Local Board	1,61,206	..	3	16	..
Patan Local Board	1,14,668	1	1	11	..
Sihora Local Board	1,81,640	1	[illegible]	15	..
Murwara Local Board	1,99,437	1	3	16	..

Again, in 1926-27, the second triennial elections were held in the District and the number of nominated members of the Jabalpur Local Board was raised from three to four. The District Council and Local Boards for the first time, elected a non-official Chairman. The income of the Jabalpur District Council rose from Rs. 135,385 in 1911-12 to Rs. 245,302 in 1921-22 and to Rs. 206,368 in 1936-37. The expenditure figures for the same years were Rs. 127,480, Rs. 242,438 and Rs. 204,197, respectively. This increase was shared by all the major heads of expenditure and has occured mostly under educational and civil works owing to expansion of activities in these departments towards which government largely contributed.

With the advent of Independence in 1947, the local self-government institutions assumed all the more importance. Within a short period, the Janapada scheme was introduced under the Janapada Act passed by the Central Provinces and Berar Provincial Legislative Assembly in 1947. The word Janapada is not new, as it has been taken from similar institution in ancient India. A rural area composed of a collection of villages and administered as one unit was known as Janapada in contra-distinction to *'Pura'*, which signified a township or urban area. A local authority in the village has been given the name of 'Grampanchayat' and a local administrative authority over a group of villages or Janapada has been given the name of Janapada Sabha. The entire scheme was just modified statutory version of Pandit D.P. Mishra's original scheme for the 'Reconstitution of Local Self-Government.'[1] With the establishment of Janapada Sabhas at tahsil level, the Local Bodies and District Councils in the Jabalpur district were abolished.

A word may be added about the growth of village Panchayats. The arrangements for village conservancy was made as early as 1864-65, when a set of translated 'Village Conservancy Rules' was given to land-holders, and district officials made occasional inspection to ensure cleanliness.[2] Later in 1889, the Central Provinces Village Sanitation Act was passed and efforts were made to improve the sanitation and water supply in the rural areas of the Jabalpur District. The Act was introduced in Patan and Panagar and also into six other villages in 1893, but beyond the official notification no further action was taken until 1901-02 In that year Panchayats were formed in Patan and Panagar, and the idea of extending the Act to other villages in the District was temporarily abandoned. In October 1909 another village, Barela, was brought under the operation of the Act. The sanitation committees relied for their funds on voluntary registration of cattle-sales, weighmen's fees and dues levied in the bazar stalls. In 1901-02 the receipts of the Patan committee were only Rs. 249 In 1906-07 they stood at Rs 732 while for 1912-13 the amount received was Rs. 2643 including grants and donations. Between the year 1901-02 and 1906-07 the funds of the Panagar Committee increased from Rs. 703 to Rs 2965. The receipts for 1912-13 were Rs. 2045. The principal source of income was the registration of cattle which brought in Rs. 1789. The committee spent Rs 3320 on the construction of drains and Rs. 1381 on the improvement of roads. The conservancy establishment consisted of 12 sweepers with several carts. With regard to Berela, the receipts for 1912-13 were Rs. 490 as against Rs. 587 in

1 For details see 'Reconstitution of Local Self-Government', Nagpur, 1939
2. C. P. Administration Report, 1864-65, p. 57.

1911-12. The chief sources of income were weighmen's fees and bazar dues, and practically all the income was spent on conservancy.

The progressive reforms in the country led to the enactment of Village Sanitation and Public Management Bill and the Village Panchayat Bill by the pre-Reform Legislative Council in 1919. Each of these two Acts formed an essential part of the reorganisation of the frame-work of local self-government in rural areas and they owed their genesis to the report of Decentralisation Commission 1907-09) and the final shape in which they were presented to the Legislative Council to the Resolution No. 41 of the Government of India in the Department of Education (Municipalities) dated May 16th 1918. These and subsequent legislative enactments, invested local-bodies with wider Powers of control in local administration.

Before we proceed further a mention may be usefully made of the 'Panchayati Raj' which is ready for implementation in the State. This scheme, novel in conception and revolutionary in appraoch, has been formulated by the Government so that the masses of the people themselves participated in the business of administration and in other aspects of community life, social, economic and judicial. The Madhya Pradesh Panchayat Act (VII of 1962), as amended by Act XVIII of 1962, seeks to establish a three-tier system of Panchayats—the Gram Panchayat at the village level, the Janapada Panchayat at the Block level and Zila Panchayat at the District level

MUNICIPAL CORPORATION

Besides a Corporation, there are two municipalities in this District, viz., the tahsil towns of Sihora and Murwara.

Jabalpur Corporation—The Municipal adminisatation in Jabalpur was set up on August 6, 1864, under the City of Lucknow Municipal Act (XVIII of 1864) and it is the earliest of the municipalities in the State.[1] It has had a chequered early career In the beginning it had six nominated members There existed a sanitary sub-committee for the urban area, and the District Medical Officer was appointed *ex-officio* Sanitary Officer[2] In 1864-65 the new streets of Jabalpur, constructed on a uniform and handsome design, were completed.[3] Later, in 1870-71, the water supply in the city was improved. Bazars were re-built by private enterprise and streets were lighted partially by.[4] In 1886-87 a tax on vehicles was enforced in Jabalpur.[5] The committee undertook relief work on the drainage

1 C. P. Gazette, 24th September, 1864
2 C. P. Administration Report, 1864-65, p. 57.
3. *Ibid*, pp. 36-37.
4. *Ibid*, 1870-71, p. 55.
5. *Ibid*, 1886-87, p. 25.

of Bhantalaiya tank in 1895-96 and an expenditure of Rs. 3911 was incurred. The Board covered an area of nearly 7 sq. miles with a population of 77,159 in 1901. The subrub of the large village of Garha, now a municipal ward, was included in it. The Committee was composed of 20 elected and 7 nominated members. The principal source from which municipal funds were derived were octroi, water rate, conservancy cess, tolls and duties from markets and slaughter houses. The total receipts of the Board in the year 1906-07 amounted to Rs. 243,371 working out at Rs. 3-2-6 per head of the population. The expenditure for that year was Rs 1,84,423 which excludes Rs. 63,692 on account of repayment of loan. The municipal areas extended, in 1911, to 8.61 sq. miles with a population of 79,009 The number of members was raised to 32, of whom 25 were elected and 7 nominated by the Government. About this time the municipality spent Rs. 1,42,366. in acquiring lands for the expansion of the city for which it obtained a loan of Rs. 1,70,000 from the Government The income for the year, 1913-14, excluding loans, advances and deposits, was Rs 3,82,561 falling at Rs. 4-13-6 per head of the population. The expenditure for that year was 3,10,312, which excludes Rs. 61,022 on account of repayment of loan and Rs. 22,094 on account of advances and deposits With the rise of population there was a great strain on the accommodation and the municipality acquired about 490 acres of land between 1909 and 1915. On this land Gol Bazar and Napier Town localities were laid out in 1910-11, Wright Town in 1923, and Madan Mahal extension in 1934-35. All these localities have steadily developed into beautiful residential areas.

The Municipality was reconstituted in 1925-26 under the C.P. and Berar Municipality Act of 1922. The new Committee had 34 members, including 23 elected, 3 selected 2 *ex-officio* and 6 nominated by the Government. The sub joined statement shows the income and expenditure of the municipality since 1891:—

	1891-92	1901-10	1920-21	1932-33	1940-41	1950-51
	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.
Income	236341	232036	451202	623670	919382	3040419
Expenditure	234297	232624	305842	641182	906920	3496246

The figures of population variation are 2.74 percent from 1891-92 to 1920-21, 61.56 percent from 1920-21 to 1940-41, and 45.24 percent from 1940-41 to 1950-51. The income in 1920-21 increased by 90.91 per cent over that in 1891-92, by 103.80 percent in 1940-41 over that in 1920-21 and by 230.63 percent in 1950-51 over that in 1940-41. This striking increase in receipts, particularly after 1941, is mainly due to the revised scale of taxes, and partly at least, an inevitable result of the fall in money values in recent times There was a corresponding inrrease in the expenditure during the same period.

The Municipal Board continued to function upto 31st May 1950, when it was replaced by a Corporation under the City of Jabalpur Corporation (Act III of 1948) framed on the analogy of enactments governing the cities of Madras, Calcutta and Patna. The city, covering an area of 12 sq miles, was divided into 30 wards vide the Government Notification No 290-5317-M-XIII, dated 18th January 1951.[1] Section 9 of the Act fixed the number of councillors to be 43, of these 34 elected, 6 selected and 3 nominated. Out of the 34 councillors to be elected, 30 were elected from wards through adult suffrage and the rest of these were elected by special constituencies, *viz.*, the Mahakoshal Chamber of Commerce, the Registered Trade Unions having their offices at Jabalpur, the Graduates of the Universities, and the Owners of the Janapada Sabhas, the Central Railway and the South-Eastern Railway Administration. The remaining six councillors were selected by the elected and appointed councillors from amongst the people qualified under the Act. The term of the councillors was for five years. The Council elected its own Mayor and Deputy Mayor for a term of one year. The first election of the Corporation was held in 1952, and the next in 1957. The term of the councillors, which expired on 24th September, 1962, was extended for six months by the Government Notification No. 120-6522-U-XVIII dated 19th September 1962[2] The jurisdiction of the Corporation was enlarged in 1959 vide Government notification No 2312-19489-U-XVIII dated 19th October 1959 and it now extends over an area of 52 sq. miles.[3]

With a view to bringing the three Municipal Corporations in the State under a unified status, the Jabalpur Corporation was brought under the operation of the Madhya Bharat Municipal Corporation

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1 M. P. Gazette, 18th January, 1951.
2 *Ibid.* (Extra-ordinary) 20th September, 1962.
3 *Ibid.* Pt. II, 10th August 1962.

Act of 1956 with effect from May 17, 1961, vide, notification No. 87-U-XVIII, dated 16th May 1961.[1] This raised the number of councillors to 57, out of which 46 will be elected and 11 selected Another notification No. 94-5581-U-XVIII, dated 13th July 1962 declared the following constituencies as reserved for the Scheduled Caste candidates. (1) Thakkar ward (2) Ghamapur ward, (3) Karia Pathar (4) East Belbagh (5) Khandari.[2]

The financial resources of the Corporation include conservancy tax, professional tax, registration fees, vehicle tax. fees from schools, sale-proceeds of lands, and the revenue from markets, slaughter houses and commercial under takings like water-works, etc.

The total receipts and expenditure of the Corporation for the last twelve years are given below:—

Year	Receipts Rs.	Expenditure Rs.
1951-52	31,94,873	28,25,163
1952-53	30,69,810	28,83,995
1953-54	32,72,087	32,64,747
1954-55	33,86,815	35,50,969
1955-56	37,73,210	37,58,759
1956-57	47,53,496	47,29,425
1957-58	42,12,486	43,51,735
1958-59	53,72,951	50,75,046
1959-60	52,66,100	46,91,043
1960-61	76,48,661	76,15,938
1961-62	1,05,70,089	1,12,28,944
1962-63	84,70,792	81,06,427

The major activities of the Corporation are education, public health and sanitation, water supply, lighting, slumclearance and **town planning.**

Education.—Compulsory primary education was introduced in Jabalpur as early as 1928-29. The number of schools maintained by the Board, in 1951-52, was 23 including three girls Middle schools. In 1960-61, it was running 98 Primary and 10 Middle schools. Of these 32 Primary and four Middle Schools were exclusively meant for girls. In addition, there was a boys Higher Secondary School. The total enrolment in the same year was 34,536 Expenditure on education amounted to Rs. 12 89,444 in 1960-61 as against Rs. 4,49,922 **in 1950-51 and Rs. 1,59,795 in 1940-41. In 1962-63, the expenditure** on education increased further to Rs 15,25,862

1. M. P Gazette, 17th May, 1962.
2. *Ibid*, Pt II, 24th August, 1962.

Public Health and Sanitation—According to the earlier records the Jabalpur Municipality contributed towards the maintenance of the Victoria Hospital and two other dispensaries in the twenties of the 19th Century. Its expenditure rose in 1928 from Rs. 12,000 to Rs. 25,000 mainly due to the opening of a Unani dispensary and a Child Welfare Centre.[1] In 1933-34 two more Ayurvedic and one Unani dispensary were started. About this time one Ayurvedic dispensary was handed over by Messrs Hirji Govindji to the Jabalpur Municipality with a building worth Rs. 5000 and the necessary equipment.[2] The Corporation now maintains 12 medical institutions. Of these five are Ayurvedic, four Homoeopathic, three Allopathic and one Unani. It also runs eight Child Welfare Centres and an Infectious Disease Hospital with 21 permanent and 70 temporary beds for the patients. The Corporation carries on regularly vaccination and antimalaria work. The rising trend in the expenditure on this item is evident from the following table.

Year	Rs.
1940-41	1,01,258
1950-51	2,50,2[illegible]6
1960-61	9,04,461
1961-62	40,14,168
1962-63	31,29,213

Jabalpur town has no underground drainage and the sullage water is disposed of through surface drains joined into Omt. and *Moti nalas*. In 1920 the municipality spent Rs. 25,000 on laying out new surface drains, and subsequently in 1926-27 an amount of Rs. 40,000 was spent. In the year 1933, the municipality undertook the construction of drainage in a piecemeal manner in several wards of the town.[3] Next year, 1934, a portion of *Omtinala* was canalised. A comprehensive scheme has also been prepared to build on underground drainage system. The Corporation maintains 20 public latrines. The rubbish and night soil are collected from the city and taken to the trenching grounds situated outside and converted into compost manure. The removal of garbage has not been entirely mechanised though night soil is removed in tank lorries.

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1 Resolution reviewing the reports on the working of Municipal Committees in the Central Provinces and Berar for 1928, p. 5.

2 *Ibid*, 1931, p. 5.

3 *Ibid*, 1933, p. 4.

Water-works—The water-works were constructed in 1883 at a cost of Rs. 5 lakhs and formally opened by John Morris, the then Chief Commissioner of the Province Wells were the only means of water supply before this. In 1891-92 a short extension of the water-supply system was carried out by erecting about ten new watering standards. In 1895-96 water-works extension scheme was carried out by the Public Works Department at a cost of Rs. 2.50 lakhs and this was regarded as a 'work of great importance'. Later, in 1906-07 the Government sanctioned a loan of Rs 3 lakhs to carry out certain necessary improvement in the system In 1933, a chlorination plant was installed as the water was declared as unpotable.[1] The expenditure incurred on water-supply in 1960-61 was Rs. 21,16,738 as against Rs 3,98,831 in 1950-51 and Rs. 56,304 in 1940-41 A comprehensive water-supply scheme is now being executed by the Public Health Engineering Department to meet the perennial scarcity of water particularly during the hot weather The estimated cost of project is Rs 89 lakhs The main source of water supply at present, are the Khandari Tank (old water-works) and the Pariat tank supplying three and four million gallons of water per day, respectively for a population of 3 25 lakhs Out of this supply nearly half a million is consumed by the Railway Power House and other industrial undertakings.

Lighting—Street lighting with electric lamps dates back to 1927-28. Prior to this lighting used to be provided with petromaxes and lamps placed at suitable places The electric power in Jabalpur city is supplied by a private firm 'Jabalpur Electric Supply Company and to some parts by the M P Electricity Board. The number of consumers in 1950 was 17783 as against 14278 in 1947. Expenditure incurred on this item was Rs 1,93,271 in 1917. and Rs. 15,862 in 1960-61 as against Rs 62, 908 in 1940-41 and Rs 147 in 1891-92. A slum clearance scheme prepared by the Corporation at an estimated cost of about Rs seven lakhs, has recently been approved by the Government and is due for execution The Corporation also maintains a Fire Brigade, the annual expenditure being Rs. 12,000

Contonment Board—Besides these, there is a Cantonment Board at Jabalpur for the administration of the Cantonment area of 12 sq. miles with a population of 41,300 When Jabalpur came into the possession of the British in 1818, they stationed army units here because of the importance of this tract. It was a very important place, dominating the main line of communications between the north and

1. *Ibid*, p. 4.

south. Its advantages were rightly regarded as Imperial rather than local. The contemporary records reveal that Jabalpur was made a Cantonment in 1826 and at that time its area was 445 acres[1] The limits of the Cantonment were subsequently enlarged in 1837. In 1864-65, the Cantonment Act was extended to the Cantonment of Jabalpur. The Board was reconstituted under the Cantonment Act of 1924 and the number of members sworn in on 23rd September 1924 was 12 including the president[2] The present strength of the Boards is 14 comprising seven elected and seven nominated members. The nominated members include three *ex-officio*, members *viz.*, the Station Commander, the Garrison Engineer, and the Medical Officer. The Officer Commanding the station is President of the Board. The members hold office for a term of three years. The functions of the Board are of two types-obligatory and discretionary. The obligatory functions include lighting, watering and cleaning of streets, vaccination, medical relief, sanitation, primary education and registration of births and deaths. Under the discretionary functions come the construction and maintenance of public parks, gardens, tanks and wells, giving relief on the occurrence of local epidemics. In order to facilitate the work four committees are working, namely the Finance Committee, the Civil Area Committee, the Building and Health Committee and the Education Committee.

The annual receipts and expenditure for the last twelve years are given below:—

Year			Income Rs.	Expenditure Rs.
1950-51	..	..	4,77,509	4,93,986
1951-52	..	..	4,82,003	4,49,111
1952-53	..	..	4,07,496	4,61,582
1953-54	..	..	3,78,591	4,79,273
1954-55	..	..	45,1,857	4,87,417
1955-56	..	..	7,48,426	6,56,276
1956-57	..	..	5,88,845	4,89,124
1957 58	..	..	6,46,132	6,49,312
1958-59	..	..	6,84,895	7,68,623
1959-60	..	..	12,66,213	8,67,974
1960-61	..	..	18,17,289	23,13,807
1961-62	..	.	6,92,131	6,33 157

1 Letter from Deputy Commissioner, Jubbulpore, No 37 dated 21-5-1856, to the Officer Commanding, Jubbulpore, quoted in Lt. A A. Kidwai's "Report on the Agricultural Lands of Jubbulpore Cantonment", now preserved in the Cantonment Board's office.

2 Minutes of the Cantonment Board's Meeting dated 23-9-1924.

The main heads of income in 1961-62, were Octori which accounted for Rs. 3,67,891; water-rate Rs. 27,778; conservancy Rs. 39,661, fees from hospital Rs. 23, 483, and revenue fees from cattle-pounds, slaughter-houses and markets for Rs. 18,211.

In matters of expenditure high priority is given to medical facilities, and conservancy. Under medical facilities the expenditure in 1961-62 amounted to Rs 67,003 as against Rs 29,346 in 1951-52 and Rs. 20,473 in 1942-43. Expenditure on conservancy was Rs. 1,19,512 in 1961-62 as against Rs. 159,140 in 1951-52 and Rs. 53,764 in 1942-43. There are three Primary Schools maintained by the Board and the expenditure on these was Rs 35,735 in 1961-62

Sihora Municipality.—The Sihora Municipal Board came into existence on May 17,1867, under the Punjab Municipality Act (XV of 1867) and comprised six elected and two nominated members It was reconstituted under the C.P. and Berar Municipal Act of 1922, and the total number of members became 12, of which nine were elected In 1949 it consisted of 18 members of whom three were *ex-officio*, 11 elected and four selected Following the election of 1952, the number decreased to 17 owing to reduction in the selected members by one. The present strength of the committee is 17, including one President and two Vive-Presidents elected from amongst its own members. These seats are represented by a Harijan, Muslim, and a woman Its population in 1961 was 14,194 as against 7026 in 1941 and 57.58 in 1891 The present area of the municipality comprises Sihora town, Khitoli Bazar and villages of Manarkara and Pehrama. The bulk of receipts are obtained from *haisiyat* and conservancy taxes, rents from lands, fees from markets and pounds. The octroi is being levied with effect from 1st May 1960, and it is now one of the main sources of revenue. Detailed statement showing the income and expenditure of the municipality for the period 1890 91—1961 62 is given below :—

Year			Income	Expenditure
			Rs.	Rs.
1890-91	..	..	4,903	4,036
1900-01	..	..	4,718	5,054
1910-11	..	..	6,547	6,399
1920-21	..	..	9,514	9,139
1930-31	..	..	12,922	19,640
1940-41	..	..	17,509	17,236
1950-51	..	..	69,098	57,084
1960-61	..	..	1,92,423	1,37,257
1961-62	..	..	2,45,889	1,70,993

The Board is running three Primary Schools and one Middle school attended by 1481 students. The expenditure incurred on education was Rs. 48,519 in 1960-61 against Rs. 9759 in 1940-41 and Rs. 1333 in 1910-11. The expenditure on lighting has risen from Rs .354 in 1891-92 to Rs. 1178 in 1950-51 and Rs. 4444 in 1960-61. The town is electrified. The main source of water-supply in the town are wells. The municipality took a loan, in 1960-61, of Rs. 5000 to make arrangement for an edequate water-supply.

Murwara Municipality.—The Municipal Board of this town was first instituted in 1874 under Act II of 1873. It was reconstituted under C.P. Municipal Act XVIII of 1889 and comprised eight elected and two nominated members. Under the Act XVI of 1903 the Board consisted of 11 members (eight elected and three nominated). The chief source of income then was *haisiyat* tax, weighmen's fees and revenue from bazar stalls. Under the C.P. and Berar Municipal Act of 1922, the number of members increased to 12, of which nine were elected and three nominated. In 1947-48 the municipal committee consisted only of five members, four elected and one nominated. Following elections in 1950 the strength of the committee rose to 20, the number of elected, slected and *ex officio members* being 13, four and three, respectively. In 1960-61 the total number of members was 31, of which 23 are elected from 23 municipal wards, five are selected and three are *ex-officio members*. The bulk or receipts was derived from the terminal tax, *haisiyat tax*, latrine tax, and rent from property. In 1945-46 the haisiyat tax was replaced by the House-tax. Octroi is not levied in the municipal area. Income from various sources totalled to Rs. 5,892 in 1891-92 as against Rs. 18,485 in 1910-11, and Rs. 73,877 in 1940-41.

The following statistics indicate the general financial position of the municipality, the principal items being:—

	1947-48	1951-52	1952-53	1960-61
	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.
Terminal tax	29,931	32,019	48,126	53,765
House tax	33,377	60,209	69,210	67,595
Markets	31,000	46,114	46,776	54,683
Rent on lands	6,640	29,247	34,981	32,882
Conservancy	28,179	52,891	59,599	56,874
Revenue from educational Institutions ..	21,985	21,995	17,624	23,220

Expenditure for the same period is as follows:—

	1947-48 Rs.	1951-52 Rs.	1956-57 Rs.	1960-61 Rs
Public Works..	10,070	4,677	54,066	6,373
Education	55,299	93,234	1,30,677	1,48,493
Medical	13,746	19 818	21,655	2,272
Water Supply	Nil	Nil	Nil	7,568
Conservancy	61,551	73,818	65,967	50,537
Lighting	6,340	8,845	14,272	20 204

In addition to one Ayurvedic dispensary, the Board is now running 10 Primary schools, one girl's Midle School and one Higher Secondary School with a total enrolment of 5950. There is no water-works in the town. Wells and hand-pumps are the only means of water-supply and localities which are near the river Katni also use river water. The rise in the population of the town has rendered the water-supply, particularly during the hot weather, very inadequate. The population was 9460 in 1891 as against 19682 in 1921 and 21959 in 1931. The growth between the years 1941 and 1961 has been comparatively higher, and the number has risen from 24630 in 1941 to 33258 in 1951 and to 41757 in 1961. This was due to the fact that the town of Katni has developed at a fast pace on account of mineral wealth in the neighbouring area. With a view to meeting the growing demands of the population the Board constituted, in 1959-60, a water works Committee and spent a sum of Rs. 8481 to augment the water-supply in the town. Next year, 1960-61, it again spent Rs. 6757 and deposited Rs. 52,530 with the Public Health Engineering Department for the extension of water-supply scheme in the town. The Government has recently sanctioned a water-supply scheme costing about Rs. 25 lakhs for Katni town. This envisages the construction of a plant capable of supplying two million gallons of filtered and chlorinated water at the rate of 30 gallons of water per head per day for a future population of 66,000. The in-take works are located on the right bank of the Katni river near Kataiyaghat, about two miles from the town. The municipality has agreed to supply eight lakh gallons of water per day to the Ordinance Factory, Katni.

TOWN PLANNING

With a view to checking un-co-ordinated and haphazard growth in and around Jabalpur and other districts covered by the Commissioner's Division, Jabalpur, a Divisional Town Planning Office was established by the erstwhile of Madhya Pradesh in February 1949 with headquarters at Jabalpur and in the charge of an Assistant Town Planning Officer with necessary technical and non-technical staff to assist him in his work. An Out-line Development Plan of Jabalpur was prepared. Detailed scurveys for Kariapather, Lalmati and Glass-factory area were conducted and a layout was prepared. Now the Improvement Trust Jabalpur, has framed a scheme for the improvement of slums in this area on the basis of the layout now modified. In stage I the scheme envisages the construction of 144 tenements. The scheme has been submitted to Government for sanction. These 144 tenements will rehouse the slum-dwellers dehoused in the process of slum improvement. A provision of Rs. 86,000 has been made for carrying out engineering surveys of Jabalpur.

The Improvement Trust, Jabalpur is formulating several other development projects in various localities of the town after due consulation with this department under the Land Acquisition and Development Scheme Four projects one each under the Slum Clearance, Sweepers' Housing, Urban Land Development and Land Acquisition, and Development Scheme, formulated by the Jabalpur Corporation have been sanctioned by Government and an amount of Rs. 2.46 lakhs (1.68 lakhs as loan and Rs. 0.78 lakhs as subsidy) has been released to the Corporation for the execution of these projects

Janapada Sabhas.

With a view to decentralising the local administration, the District Council and Local Boards were abolished and four Janapada Sabhas, one each at tahsil level, were constituted at Jabalpur, Murwara, Sihora and Patan. The Sihora Janapada came into being on July 9, 1948, and the remaining three were formed on August 15, 1948 under the C. P. and Berar Local Government Act, 1948. This Act, as amended from time to time, is still in force. When the Janapada Sabhas were first created, they consisted of nominated members, but after the general election of 1953 the elected sabhas

started working from March 1954. The following table gives the position of Janapada Sabhas in the district:—

Janapada Sabha	Area in Sq. imles	Members		
		Elected	Selected	Total
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
Jabal pur	161.9	20	6	26
Sihora..	199.4	23	8	31
Patan	542	20	7	27
Murwara	1190	24	7	31

The Sub-Divisional Officers of Jabalpur, Sihora, and Murwara (Katni) act as the Chief Executive officers of these Janapada Sabhas. The Patan Janapada was a minor Sabha till 31st August 1955, and the Chief Executive Officer, Jabalpur, exercised authority over Patan as well. He has, however, delegated his powers to the Tahsidar whose headquarters are at Patan.

A Janapada is divided into urban and rural circles, the urban circle consisting of the existing municipal and Notified Areas comprised in a Janapada, and the rural circle consisting of areas in a Janapada other than municipal, Notified and Cantonment areas. The membership of the Janapada Sabha is of two kinds, elected and selected. Elected members are again of two types, those representing rural circles and others representing urban circles. The representatives of rural circles are elected by secret ballot, whereas from urban areas they are elected by single transferable vote by the members of the municipal committees and Notified Areas. In case the elected councillors do not include a Harijan, and in areas specially notified by the State Government in this behalf the elected councillors select a Harijan, or a member of an aboriginal tribe. The life of the Sabha is for five years from the date of its first meeting and the term of office of every councillor co-terminates with it. In pursuance of the Act of 1948, every Sabha in the District appointed, out of its own body, the following standing committees: Finance, Public Works Department, Public Health, Education, Agriculture and Development. Each of these committees have an independent Chairman elected by the Committee itself. The last-mentioned Committee was abolished by the Government in December 1953, in accordance with the recommodations of the

Janapada Enquiry Committee, 1952, and instead an Administrative Committee comprising eleven or nearly equal to one-third of the total number of councillors, was constituted in each Sabha. The Chief Executive Officer is the *ex-officio* Secretary of every standing Committee. The Administrative Committee deals with the appointment of the Janapada staff and is responsible for co-ordination and implementation of the decisions taken by other Committees. The Chief Executive Officer of the Janapada Sabha is government servant.

The functions and duties allotted to the Janapada Sabhas cover a wide range of subjects and include all measures likely to promote the health, comfort, and education of the people living in rural areas. The newly elected Janapada Sabhas have been vested with larger authority and wider powers than what the old District Councils possessed. In brief, any subject other than those relating to revenue, police, law and order, can be delegated to the Janapada Sabhas. In addition the Act authorises the Janapada Sabhas to exercise a general power of supervision over the working of the Gram Panchayats within their respective areas.

The Janapada Sabhas derive their income chiefly from the cesses, cattle-pounds, markets and share of land revenue at the rate of 30 pies per rupee on rents fixed for lands under the M. P. Land Revenue Code, 1959. The following table gives income and expenditure figures for the period 1948-1961.

Year	INCOME IN RS.				EXPENDITURE IN RS.			
	Jabalpur Sabha	Sihora Sabha	Patan Sabha	Murwara Sabha	Jabalpur Sabha	Sihora Sabha	Patan Sabha	Murwara Sabha
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)	(8)	(9)
1948-49	1,60,805	27,468	1,61,820	1,51,448	96,507	1,24,841	65,911	1,29,995
1949-50	2,79,580	3,76,365	2,58,935	1,46,116	2,2,0658	2,39,712	1,90,269	1,64,742
1950-51	2,83,320	3,72,471	3,08,639	2,61,892	2,27,248	3,87,253	2,19,037	2,187,31
1951-52	4,44,021	3,73,506	3,06,024	2,58,918	3,29,035	3,54,175	2,06,817	2,53,964
1952-53	6,22,625	3,51,060	3,42,427	3,04,806	4,99,615	3,24,204	2,28,281	2,92,958
1953 54	6,13,473	5,23,552	30,047	2,80,905	5,04,970	5,18,112	3,02,585	3,47,497
1954-55	5,24,372	6,37,190	2,05,914	3,67,021	4,64,472	5,97,492	74,773	3,50,618
1955-56	5,26,016	7,41,085	4,72,337	4,30,960	4,52,533	7,05,389	3,10,223	3,89,850
1956-57	5,59,528	7,13,393	5,42,725	4,38,183	5,13,115	9,53,565	4,01,409	4,55,601
1957-58	5,78,554	8,49,087	5,67,606	4,33,908	5,25,274	79,060	4,41,498	4,80,455
1958-59	7,01,354	8,28,068	5,49,835	5,28,764	6,25,183	8,38,879	4,41,388	4,78,71
1959-60	6,76,415	9,27,009	5,53,018	5,33,997	587,758	8,70,641	4,33,971	5,13,2448
1960 61	5,96,218	10,40,723	6,65,101	6,18,939	6,81,686	9,74,549	4,68,284	6,08,571

Education.

One of the main functions of the Janapada Sabha is the management of education in rural areas. Since 1948, the expenditure on this item has rapidly risen owing to an ever-increasing demand for schools in villages, as is evident from the following table:—

(Amount in Rs.)

Year	Jabalpur Sabha	Patan Sabha	Sihora Sabha	Murwara Sabha.
1948-49	39,534	39,533	79,553	80,282
1955-56	1,40,000	1,55,527	2,62,778	2,35,988
1956-57	1,60,740	1,24,470	3,29,797	3,05,572
1957-58	1,78,571	1,23,715	3,67,068	3,44,028
1958-59	1,75,097	3,02,070	4,48,164	3,63,336
1959-60	2,03,423	3,11,605	4,05,880	3,73,112

In 1960-61 the Jabalpur Janapada was running three pre-Primary, 142 Primary, 14 Middle and four Higher Secondary school. The Patan Janapada had two pre-Primary, 95 Primary, 10 Middle, and three Higher Secondary schools. The Sihora Janapada also maintained 10 Primary, 12 Middle and one higher secondary school. In Murwara Janapada there were 169 Primary and 22 Middle schools and one Higher Secondary school in the same year.

Public Health and Medical.—The chief activities under this head are the maintenance of dispensaries, purification of drinking-water, measures for prevention of epidemic, vaccination and innoculation The number of Ayurvedic dispensaries in Jabalpur, Murwara, Patan and Sihora Janapada is 14, 12, 9 and 14, respectively. In addition there is a full fledged Veterinary dispensary at Jabalpur and three outlying dispensaries in rural areas of the tahsil under the management of the Janapada Sabha. The Patan Sabha maintains two full-fledged and two outlying Veterinary dispensaries. The Murwara Sabha pays 50 percent of the total expenditure of an outlying Veterinary dispensary. Expenditure on this item during certain significant years was as follows :—

Name of Janapada	1948-49 (Rs.)	1960-61 (Rs.)
Jabalpur	5,091	27,258
Sihora	5,216	47,478
Patan	5,091	24,447
Murwara	4,165	30,720

Public Works.—The Janapada Sabhas play an important role in the development of rural communications, construction of buildings of schools and dispensaries, and repair of wells and tanks. During the decade, 1951-1961 the Patan Janapada Sabha spent Rs. 11,04,109, Murwara Sabha Rs. 2,60,219 and Sihora Sabha Rs. 17,39,012 over Water-supply works. A notable achievement of the Murwara Sabha is the construction of a large public hall in Katni at a cost of Rs. 54,000 received as donations from councillors and public.

PANCHAYATS

The famous Resolution of Lord Ripon dated 18th May, 1882 was the first important step taken by the Government to give concrete shape to the scheme for the extension of Local Self- Government from urban to rural areas. In pursuance of the pronouncement, of Ripon self-Government institutions in the form of municipalities, and District and Taluq boards came into existence in all the British Indian provinces The next mile-stone in the growth of village self-Government was marked by the Government of India Resolution of 1915 recommending to the Provincial Government the constitution of village panchayats for the administration of local affairs. The Central Provinces and Berar Local Self-Government Act of 1920 was the direct outcome of this. The subject of village panchayat was reviewed by a Committee appointed by the Government in 1926. There were, in 1928, only 20 panchayats in the whole of Jabalpur division with total receipts of Rs. 8778. The progress of the village panchayats remained slow and the results achieved by them were unimpressive. This led to the appointment of a Committee of Enquiry by the Central Provinces Government in 1935. The Committee *inter-alia* recommended that panchayats should be endowed with civil and criminal powers, that certain functions should be made obligatory for them, and that a certain share of District Council's income should be made over to them. The recommendations of this Committee were embodied in the Madhya Pradesh Panchayat Act of 1946. which was enforced in 1947. This Act, as amended from time to time, continues to govern the panchayat system in the district of Mahakoshal region[1] Under this Act, the village panchayats have been established in each village

1 The New Act known as the Madhyn Pradesh Panchayats Act, 1962 has come into force throughout the State. The Act introduces three tier system of Panchayats, the Gram Panchayat at the village level, the Janapada Panchayat at the Development Block level and the Zila Panchayat at the District level Under this Act election of the Gram Panchayats of the District were held in the month of December, 1964. In all 384 Gram Panchayats have been constituted in Jabalpur District. Of these, 88 are in Jabalpur tahsil, 120 in Sihora tahsil, 177 in Katni tahsil and 59 in Patan tahsil.

having a population of 1,000 or more in the first instance. In the second phase panchayats were formed in each village having a population of 500 and above, but the constitution of panchayats in villages having a population of less than 500 could not be taken up owing to the Reorganisation of State. The number of panchayats was 294 in 1954-55 against 241 in 1952-53 and 217 in 1950-51. Since 1956 the progress in this sphere has been as follows: —

Year	Number of Panchayats
1955-56	411
1956-57	427
1957-58	427
1958-59	427
1959-60	427
1960-61	875
1961-62	875
1962-63	875

The election to panchayats is held on the basis of an adult franchise and by secret ballot. The number of Panchas ranges between 5 and 15. Besides, a Patel is an ex-officio member even though the maximum number of 15 Panchas may be working on the panchayat. The term of a panchayat is five years. The Sar-panch is elected by the Panchas from amongst themselves or from amongst the residents of the village. The Up-Sar-panch is nominated by the Sar-panch from amongst the members of the panchayat or from the residents of the village. The term of the Sar-panch and Up-Sar-panch is co-terminus with that of the pachayat, i.e., five years.

The obligatory functions of panchayat include medical aid, registration of births, deaths and marriages, supply of water, sanitation, construction and maintenance of roads in the village. The optional functions relate to agricultural activities, promotion of education and cottage industries, and street lighting. Besides, they are associated with minor development works and welfare activities.

The main sources of revenue are fees. taxes. government grants and donations. A compulsory cess on land-revenue at the rate of six pies per rupee is levied. Compulsory taxes on building and non-agricultural land ranging from Rs 2 to Rs. 80 per year, an annual tax on profession varying from eight annas to five rupees and annual licence fee ranging from one rupee to Rs 30 for practising as broker can also be levied. The optional taxes include a toll on vehicles. packanimals and bazars, water-rate and a lighting fee.

Total income and expenditure figures for all the Gram Panchayats of this District from the year 1951-52 to 1961-62 are given below.

Year			Income in Rs.	Expenditure in Rs.
1951-52	..	..	39,761	36,438
1952-53	..	..	86,076	37,673
1953-54	..	..	98,145	51,042
1954-55	..	..	98,858	67,991
1955-56	..	..	1,28,955	89,573
1956-57	..	..	79,142	79,620
1957-58	..	..	2,16,429	1,50,920
1958-59	..	..	2,21,159	1,53,546
1959-60	..	..	2,32,961	1,60,143
1960-61	..	..	2,49,428	1,62,154
1961-62	..	..	2,81,274	1,81,450

Gram Panchayats can also raise loans equal to 5 percent of their revenue from a non-collapsible village Development Fund. In the initial stage the Government grants Rs. 200 to Rs. 300 for meeting the expenses connected with development activities. There is a Gram Panchayat Fund and all money thus received is credited to this account.

The duty of collecting land-revenue has been entrusted to ten villages in the District on an experimental basis. They are Barhi, Singodi, Karitalai. Pipariakala and Gartalai villages in Murwara Janapada, and Panda, Lamkana, Bachiya, Khitoli and Majhgowan in Sihora Janapada. The commission that was formerly given to Patels is now being given to these selected panchayats. The markets are another important source of income in the village and the Janapada Sabhas of the District have entrusted the management of ten village markets to the Gram Panchayats concerned.

The former Madhya Pradesh Government initiated a scheme for training the Panchas in the village administration, and three Panchayat Instructors were appointed in October, 1950 to implement the scheme in the District. In 1953, the post of Panchayat Instructor was abolished and the District Welfare Officer was put in

charge of the panchayats in the whole District. He is assisted by Social Welfare Instructors and Co-operative-*cum*-Panchayat Instructors in the Non-Block and Block areas.

Nyaya Panchayat

The Gram Panchayats are closely linked with Nyaya Panchayats and both together weave a new pattern of rural life. There are generally two or three panchayats in a Revenue Inspector's circle. Each Nyaya Panchayat has within its Jurisdiction not less than three Gram panchayats and a number of villages between 22 to 30. The Panchas of a Nyaya panchayat are nominated by the Government from amongst the members of Gram Panchayat within its jurisdiction and their number is not less than five. The Sarpanch is appointed by the Government from amongst the panchas of Nyaya Panchayat and the basis of this nomination is educational qualification, social status and reputation for integrity. He can be removed on certain grounds. The Sarpanch appoints a Up-Sarpanch. Normally the term of Nyaya Panchayat is five years, but the old panchayats continue to function till the new Nyaya Panchayats are constituted In 1962. there were 52 Nyaya Panchayats in the District. Of these 13 were in Jabalpur tahsil, 15 in Murwara tahsil, 9 in Patan tahsil and 15 in Sihora tahsil. The Nyaya Panchayats are endowed with judicial powers to decide minor offences, and render justice cheap, simple and quick in the rural areas.

CHAPTER XV

EDUCATION AND CULTURE

From the Rock Edict at Rupnath[1] we may infer that some system of education was prevalent in the District in those days, since a rock edict could not have imparted instruction to unlettered masses. When the Guptas came into power in the 4th century A D, this region shared their culture and civilization characterised by the Vaishnava cult. When historians compare the Gupta period to the Periclean Age of Greece and Elizabethan epoch of England, and speak of the intellectual celebrities of that period 'whose contributions vastly enriched' the Indian literature, we can imagine how this region might have flourished under their reign

This prosperous state of affairs seems to have languished with the exit of this dynasty. For the period following, *i.e.*, up to 875 A. D. Jabalpur has not much to show about its cultural history.

The rise of the Haihayas or the Kalachuris, also referred to as the Chedi Kings, of Tripuri[2] (modern Tewar in Jabalpur) marked the renaissance of learning and culture in Jabalpur. During their reign a Hindu monastery called the Golaki Math sprang up in Bheraghat under the patronage of Nohal Devi, wife of Yuvarajadeva, an illustrious king of this dynasty. Both Yuvarajadeva and Nohal Devi were fervent devotees of Lord Siva Yuvarajadeva granted an endowment of three lakhs of villages for the welfare and unkeep of this Math. In the course of the next 200 years it became a very big seat of learning. The curriculum included the Vedas, Mathematics, Astronomy, Philosophy, Grammar, Rhetorics and Ayurveda The distinguished Acharyas of this Math attracted thousands of disciples from far flung areas of the country. The first head of the Math was Guru Sadbhava Sambhu

The court of Yuvarajadeva was adorned by two great Sanskrit poets, Rajshekhar and Suranand. Rajshekhar was the poet-laureate. The great Sanskrit drama *Bal Ramayana*. *Kavyamimamsa* (the unique treatise on rhetorics), *Karpuramanjari*, *Balabharata*, and the famous drama *Viddhasalabhanjika*, in which the biography of

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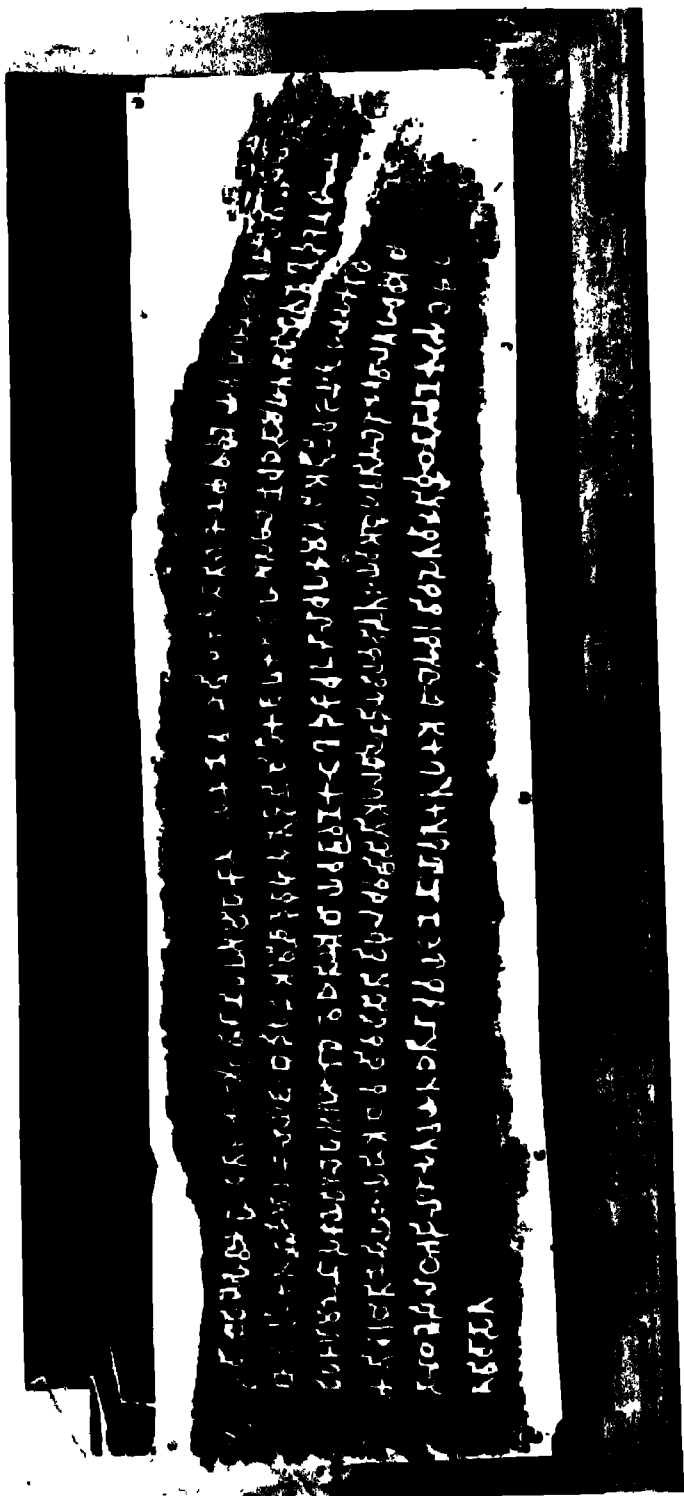
1. Rupnath is a place 3 miles (4.8 km) from Bahoriband and 19 miles (30.8 km) from Sihora Railway Station in Jabalpur District.
2. In the Mahabharata Tripuri is referred to as Chedi-desh (See Bhishmaparv, Chapter IX, Stanza 40, Chapter LIV, Stanza 8).

Ashokan Inscription, Rupnath

Yuvarajadeva (915-945 A.D.) is reflected, are said to have emanated from the pen of this genius.

No definite system of education seems to have pravailed during the Sultanate and the Gond periods. The introduction of Persian as the language of the Government by Mughals resulted in its popularity in this area also The Hindus had their children taught at home by appointing a *guru* The *guru* used to teach, besides the three R's, a little of the great Hindu epics. This system of teaching later attained a definite shape in the form of *Pathsalas*, and still later, as indigenous schools.

The Muslims got their children educated by the *Maulvis* who taught them to read, write and speak Persian and Arabic and a little arithmetic. The *Koran* was read out and deciphered to them. The pupils were required to recite verses from the *Koran*

Beginning of Western Education

Such was the condition of education in Jabalpur when the British annexed this tract in 1818. Indigenous schools continued to exist and western education made its appearance only by 1830. It is, however, interesting to note that one Gurcharan Baboo was running a 'little Jubbulpore College' in 1828 when Major-General Sleeman was in charge of the District's administration. Sleeman says that "Gurcharan Baboo, Principal of little Jubbulpore College...... was educated in the Calcutta College; speaks and writes English exceedingly well; is tolerably well read in English literature, and is decidedly a thinkingman."[1] Perhaps Gurcharan Baboo was also a '*guru*' giving home tution to pupils desirous of learning English and his proficiency in English might have induced Sleeman to call him 'principal' The following passage will give an interesting account of the sporadic origin of indigenous schools. "The caprice of a teacher took him to a village, and he there gathered round him half a dozen pupils who constituted a "school". His caprice, in a few months perhaps, broke up that school A *Zamindar*, it might be, was well-to-do and thought he should like his sons to get some learning He engaged a *guru*, and so long as his service were retained, felt no objection to their being shared by other boys in the village But enlightened and good natured as the *zamindar* might be, much learning meant to him if not a dangerous, at least a cumbrous thing The pupil age of twelve was high noon in education, his sons were by that time masters of all the arts they were

1. Vincent A. Smith, Sleeman's Rambles and Recollections, p 29.

likely to need, the rest of the village must look after itself, and *guruji* betake himself to pastures new."[1]

Indigenous schools, though haphazard in their structure of curriculum and adminstration, were on the increase. Their peculiar composition was suited only to an underdeveloped agricultural society. These schools were being maintained by members of the same family and their descendants. The earliest of these is that of Pundit Bholanath,[2] which was attended almost entirely by the children of merchants, money-lenders and shopkeepers. This school continued to exist in its original form as an indigenous school for the next two generations, less affected by modernization.

However, as an experimental measure very few schools were started in Jabalpur near about 1828-30. Students were attracted with sweet-meats and gifts. Some of these schools were ephemeral in nature and very elementary in character. This 'purely oriental character' of education became gradually 'deorientalised' with the publication of Lord William Bentinck's Resolution in 1835. This resolution laid greater emphasis on the study of English and also the improvement of vernacular education by translation of English publications and original works in Hindi and other languages.

English education as supposed to have been the need of the hour found expression in the establishment of a Government school in 1835 which had to be transferred later to the Church Missionary Society in 1851, the reason being the failure of the experiment.

A radical change in the indigenous system of education was, however, found inevitable at the close of a five-year enquiry instituted by the then Lt. Governor Thomason. The enquiry revealed that out of the total population one-twelfth were males of school-going age of which only 3.6 per cent could be traced as in receipt of any education whatever. And "Nearly one-half of the scholars of every description belong to the Hindi schools; and in these, with scarcely an exception, little deserving the name of education can be found."[3]

A period of further experimentation followed. It was decided that vernacular schools should be started in tahsil headquarters to

1 Report by the Provincial Committee Representing the North-Western Provinces and Oudh in the Education Commission, p. 12.

2 In 1881 this school became a 'result aided' school and earned a grant of Rs. 183 in 1881-82.

3 Report by the Provincial Committee Representing the North-Western Provinces and Oudh in the Education Commission, p. 13.

serve as models. Even with this the progress of education was not quite satisfactory. While pointing out the weaknesses in the system of Education the Council of Education in its Report for 1842-43 remarks that "the absence of normal schools" and also the "absence of an organised system of inspection or examination or even adequate local superintendence in regard to teachers after appointment" were the main factors that delayed the progress of education.

A machinery for inspection was soon instituted which consisted of a 'Visitor-General' having under him in each district one Zila Visitor on Rs. 150 a month and three Pargana Visitors on Rs. 30 each. Commendable work was done by H.S. Reid who was Visitor-General from 1850. The duty of the Pargana Visitors was to visit all the towns and principal villages in their jurisdiction, and to ascertain what means of instruction were available to the people. And further, it was the duty of the Pargana Visitor to go to villages having no schools and to impress upon the people the necessity of schools and also to volunteer—if there was good response—establishment of a school with Government aids Arrangements were also made to distribute prizes to deserving students and teachers.

When these operations were afoot the number of purely indigenous schools in the N.W. Provinces was 2,800 with 22,000 scholars. The schools were of four kinds: "first, those in which the teacher received no remuneration whatever: second, those in which the teacher was a domestic tutor, entertained by his patron; third, those supported entirely by the scholars: fourth, those supported by the patron with a certain contribution from boys allowed to read with his sons "[1] The fees paid by pupils were in cash, kind, or in cash and kind. The schools could be classified as Arabic, Persian, Hindi and Sanskrit. The schools in Jabalpur were mostly in the last two divisions. Perhaps this diversity in the subjects of instruction earned them the name 'Polyglot'[2] schools. In respect of the course of study the Hindi schools were said to have been inferior to others. In these schools "little more was taught than writing with very rude materials and the multiplication table, which sometimes included not only integers multiplied by integers, but integers by fractions and fractions by fractions."[3] In addition, study of elementary arithmetic—without the aid of any book—was also not rare. Of the teachers of the many tongues the Persian teacher was supposed to be the most erudite.

1. *Ibid*, p. 14.
2. *Ibid.*
3. *Ibid.*

In 1843 the management of education was transferred to the Local Government from the 'Supreme' and funds were assigned from the general revenue.

Vernacular and Anglo-Vernacular Schools.—The 1840's further saw the opening of many vernacular schools as the vernacular was found to be the best medium for public instructoin. Thirty-six schools were opened in the District within a few years, Jabalpur, Patan, Sihora and Sleemanabad getting a school each. Of these 27 were private institutions and the rest were Government Schools. Some of these were made Anglo-vernacular schools only to be abolished later owing to very poor response from the public. The total number of pupils in Anglo-vernacular schools in Jabalpur was 133 in 1843-44, 154 in 1848-49 and nil in 1853-54, for the Anglo-vernacular schools in Jabalpur 'ceased' virtually in 1850. By this time attempt was made to introduce the system of payment of fees in schools But 'the mere talk of fees was enough to scare away pupils'. However, the system was put into effect after a considerable time and in 1848-49, 217 pupils at Jabalpur paid a total fees of Rs 125.

The *Halkabandi* or Primary vernacular schools were a new venture in the field of education. This was sponsored by Alexander, Collector of Muttra, in 1851 The plan envisaged something like a sample survey assessing the revenue paid by each village and the expenditure it could bear if some of them were grouped together to have a common school at a site in the central village of the group. The aid given to these schools varied from district to district. This plan proved to be a success every where and Jabalpur was no exception The subjects taught were arithmetic, mensuration and geography The pay of the teachers varied from Rs. 3 to 7, the average being Rs 4 10 0.

The oft-quoted 'Despatch of 1854' of the Court of Directors generally described as the 'Magna Charta of English Education in India' further laid down the educational policy to be followed. It said: "It is neither our aim nor desire to substitute the English language for the vernacular dialects of the country. In any general system of Education the English language should be taught where there is a demand for it."[1] This enhanced the importance of Vernacular education in Jabalpur District.

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1. Seclections from Educational Records, Part II, 1840-1859, p. 364.

After a gap of six years an Anglo-Vernacular school made its reappearance in Sihora on 26th April, 1856. As this was the second experiment of its kind the authorities did not venture opening more schools.

All this came to a stand still when the Great Revolt that rendered Indian History a thrill-packed chapter, broke out in 1857. The 52nd Native Infantry battalion stationed at Jabalpur rose in revolt only to be subdued. This caused the disappearance of many schools altogether. Their revival took nearly three years and the system of education prevailing before Mutiny continued for some years more. There were in all 855 scholars at the close of the academic year of 1857-58.

Growth of Western Education.—The year 1862 was a remarkable one in the history of Jabalpur in general and that of education in particular. In 1862 Jabalpur District was transferred to the new Central Provinces. This enabled the District to share more care and attention, the Central Provinces evinced in the field of education. The close of the year saw 128 educational institutions—47 Government and 81 Private—and a Male Normal School in the offiing. Schools began to spring up abundantly during the next decade. Garha and Murwara got an Anglo-Vernacular middle school each on 1st May 1863, and 1st April, 1869, respectively, to which were attached the lower Vernacular middle classes. Vernacular middle schools were also opened in the village of Panagar (1st May 1863) and Bilhari (1st November 1864), in addition to the 22 Primary village schools opened at Jabalpur, 14 in Murwara and 27 in Sihora in 1862. The fee rates were: High School classes 1 to 2 rupees, Anglo-Vernacular schools 1½ to 6 annas, and the rest 1 to 2 annas per mensem. The Primary Vernacular schools established exclusively for girls in 1862—two at Jabalpur, five at Sihora and four at Murwara-charged no fees. In 1869 a Female Normal School was started at Jabalpur to cater to the needs of Girls' educational institutions for trained teachers.

Of the Private institutions which started functioning during the years 1872-74 many were aided by Government. The aided Hitkarini Sabha Middle School, established in 1871, had 83 scholars on its roll in 1874-75 imparting instruction through English and vernacular media to 50 and 33 students, respectively. The fee rate was 3 as. to Rs. 3.

The Sadar Bazar English Middle School opened by the Church Missionary Society in 1863, the Roman Catholic Middle School for

Boys (1873), the Jabalpur Railway middle mixed School (1872), the Jabalpur Convent middle school for girls (1873) and not less than 21 primary schools were all adied by the Government. The rate of fees varied from institution to institution.[1]

A notable event of the year 1873 was the transfer of Saugor High School to Jabalpur which later became the Jabalpur Government College in 1885.[2] At the time of transfer the institution taught upto F. A. standard.

The total number of schools in Jabalpur District which was 149 in 1881-82 with 8390 scholars rose to 154 in 1882-83 with 8,536 scholars. The Primary education had two wings. *viz.*, Primary English education and Primary Vernacular education In Government Middle schools the attached Primary English schools enjoyed the status of departments only. Primary vernacular schools were government, or aided or unaided schools for boys and girls. The First Arts and Matriculation Examinations were conducted by the Calcutta University and the Middle School Examination was conducted by the Inspector General of Education. As against a course of one year, the training in the Normal Schools was extended to two years. Though the Muhammadans constituted only 3 per cent of the total population of the District of Jabalpur, they were well represented in the schools of all grades There was a good demand for Urdu. and classes were opened wherever it was found practicable.

The year 1882 showed improvement in the average school attendance which was not keeping pace with the educational activities during the past decade. The Local school committees[3] which had become very popular by this time helped the authorities solve this problem. The Inspector General of Education remarked: "It is satisfactory to observe that although some 60 chaprassis who used to be kept and paid from the fees for the pur pose of collecting boys have been dismissed, there has been very little decrease in the attendance, entirely owing to the care and exertion of school Committees. Placing the fee collection at the disposal of committees has made them take a greater interest in their schools."[4]

1. For details of fee rates see Table of Report on Education in the Centrai Provinces, 1874-75.
2. This was named Robertson College in 1916 and was subsequently renamed as Mahakoshal Mahavidyalaya in 1946.
3. See Organization and set-up.
4. C. P. Education Report, 1882-83, p. 17.

Of the other educational institutions mention may be made of the Patwari School opened in 1881-82 (maintained by *Patwari* fees) and the three Carpenter Schools attached at Katangi, Sehora and Bilhari.

Reforms in Education

Primary Education under Local Bodies.—The year 1884 was an year of certain important reforms in Education brought out by the Government of India Resolution.[1] The powers that were conferred upon the local bodies for the development of Local Self-Government were channelized to act as an impetus to educational advancement. That is to say, the Departmental rural schools were placed under the District Councils and Local Boards. The expenditure on these schools was also separated from Departmental schools' expenditure. As a result of this the District Councils began to enjoy all powers formerly vested in the Deputy Commissioner in respect of schools while he remained to be the link between District Councils and Zila Inspector. The Council was empowered to voice its approval or protest on matters connected with the rules of conduct of schools, such as constitution of school committees, curricula, fee-rates, etc., the Education Department remaining the consultant authority. In 1885 all schools were under school committees.

The municipalities supported many Secondary and Primary town schools and this was a great relief to the provincial revenues. The school committee that governed the school had a municipal member in its body or in any of the sub-committees. To deal with policy matters a standing committee was appointed with the Inspector General of Education as its President.

Scholarships.

Six types of Scholarships were instituted in 1884-85: (i) Primary school (2) Lower Middle school (3) High School (4) College Junior (5) College Senior and (6) Girls School scholarships. Jabalpur District received four Primary scholarships annually each carrying a value of Rs. 4 per month, provided the recipients were below 13 years of age and domiciles of C. P. for two years. The first Monday of January was invariably the date of the scholarship examination, the subjects of which included vernacuar language, geography, Muhammadan period of Indian History, little arithmetic and elementary natural and physical science. Pupils who belonged to a town, where a middle school was situated, were not allowed to take up the examination.

1. Resolution No. 10-309 of Government of India, published in October 1884.

One Lower Middle School scholarship worth Rs. 5 per month was attached to every Anglo-Vernacular town school. The scholarship was awarded through competition at the annual examination. Three High School scholarships were given in each Zila school for successful competitors. The Junior College scholarship carried Rs. 10 per month annually tenable for two years after matriculation and that of Senior College carried Rs. 15 per month tenable for two years, after F. A. Girls who had passed the lower Primary standard and were below the age of 14 were also granted scholarships. These were generally held by those who assisted as school monitors.

Aid to Primary Schools.

Another important event of the year was the promulgation of certain rules framed for improving the code for aiding vernacular primary and indigenous schools. For purposes of grant-in-aid the aided primary schools were categorized as (1) supported by recognised societies and associations (2) maintained by school masters privately and (3) supervised by School Committees under Local Bodies. The Anjuman-i-Islamia of Jabalpur has been largely aided. The work of Jabalpur District Council with Bireshwar Datt as its Chairman was supposed to be highly commendable.

More Anglo-Vernacular Schools.—The next year, 1885-86 saw the opening of a well equipped, well furnished, and well staffed Anglo-Vernacular[1] School with an enrolment of 64 by the great philanthropist and public man of Jabalpur, Rai Bahadur Seth Raja Gokul Das. The school has been recorded as the 'most complete school' of Northern Circle.[2] The idea of the founder was to give a perfect anglo-vernacular or vernacular education and also to impart instruction in 'Mahajani' account to pupils who desired it. The book used for this purpose was *Vidya-gyan Prakash*. No fees were taken Two other educationists, Raghunath Pershad Mukhtiar and Ganpat Lal, members of local Board, donated Rs. 2,000 and Rs. 3,000 for the Hitakarini Sabha school building and a school building at Purani bazar, Jabalpur, respectively.

In 1895 Jabalpur had the 4th place in the order of percentage of children of school—going age *i.e.*, 10.94. Female education showed a very slow but steady progress though remarkable achievement in this field was yet beyond foreseeable future.

1. The school was called Raja Gokuldas Mahajani Middle School. This was abolished in 1898.
2. Jabalpur was a district in the Northern Circle till it became the headquarters of Jabalpur Circle—see Organization and set-up.

The epidemics and the agricultural distress that prevailed in the District for a few years retarded the further growth of education. As a result of this the number of scholars decreased though the number of schools recorded an increase. In 1895-96 Jabalpur District had 196 schools of all description with 12,274 scholars as against 193 schools with 12,600 scholars of the previous year. The adversities reflected more prominently in the field of primary education.

Secondary Schools.—At the close of the year 1895 Jabalpur District had seven Anglo-Vernacular High and Middle Schools, *viz.*, Collegiate High School, Hitkarini Sabha High School, Anjuman Islamia High School, Church Mission High School, Sadar Bazar Church Mission School, R. G Mahajani Vidyalaya, 1st grade Middle School, Murwara, and eleven Vernacular Middle Schools. Of the High schools, the Hitkarini Sabha High School and the Church Mission High School had the highest number of enrolment. The management of Anjuman Islamia High School under Khan Bahadur Ali Ahmed continued to do good work. The male and female normal schools of Jabalpur also worked satisfactorily.

Progress of Education in General Since 1900—The famine that ravaged the District upto the autumn of 1900 had seriously affected the education of Jabalpur in general and primary education in particular According to 1901 Census the percentage of school-going children in Jabalpur was 11 6.

The recommendations of the Educational Conference at Simla in 1901 effected further change in the general pattern of Education in Jabalpur. The system of payment of grant by results was abolished and fixed grant system substituted for it. The aided schools other than those under the management of the missions and societies were converted into Board Schools The Upper and Lower Primary Examinations were also abolished. The salary of schoolmasters was raised. Steps were taken for the introduction of a Departmental School Final Examination at the end of the High School course. With the introduction of school final examination, the students had to undertake a course of university study for the sake of employment because the Matriculation examination would not in itself entitle them to Government employment.

These efforts for educational development were almost nullified by the outbreak of plague which resulted in the closure of many schools for months together The schools that looked forward for

more trained teachers were also disappointed on account of this. The teachers' training institution of Jabalpur now had two departments, *viz.*, a Secondary department that trained teachers for High Schools and Anglo-vernacular middle schools, and a Primary department that trained teachers for vernacular schools. The Jabalpur Normal School was thus transformed into a Training College.

Professional and technical studies were not neglected altogether. Scholarship-holders were sent for Medicine to one of the Medical Colleges at Calcutta, Lahore or Bombay The award of Agricultural scholarships was entrusted to the Agriculture Department.

The introduction of "Tutorial System" in the year 1902 was a novel feature. Students were arranged in batches according to propinquity of residence and were put under the charge of a tutor who was responsible for supervising the pupils' life outside the school walls and to enquire into all cases of sickness, absence from class, games and sports

In 1903-04 the system of distributing pay of rural schoolmasters through the Police was abolished in the Central Provinces and they were paid through the Post Offices. The strictness followed in requiring teachers to obtain training certificate resulted in the efficient coaching of Primary school students. In 1908 the Middle and Primary education curricula were revised. but the primary curriculum could not be brought into effect for want of text-books. An important aspect of the revised Primary School Curriculum was the introduction of Nature-Study based upon agriculture in place of agricultural lessons. The Jabalpur Normal School imparted training to teachers in Nature Study Allan of the Indian Agricultural Service prepared a brief course in Nature-Study for the students in Normal schools. The whole course in Nature-Study for vernacular schools was translated into Hindi and Marathi.

During the year 1909-10 a School Leaving Certificate Examination was held for the first time which consisted of the University Matriculation examination supplemented by an oral and practical test conducted by the Circle Inspector. A large number of candidates were not eligible for the certificate since they had not taken a vernacular in the Matriculation Examination

European education for Europeans and Anglo-Indians and maintenance of such institution always received separate attention. The inspecting staff were also specially chosen for this Muham-

madan pupils represented all the branches of education. To promote the spread of education among Muhammadans the Education Department had reserved a few scholarships. The Urdu Primary schools were not in a satisfactory condition. The Anjuman High School at Jabalpur began to languish owing to the dearth of trained Urdu teachers. However, future progress was promised by the new Urdu Normal School at Amraoti, which started functioning in 1910-11.

Introduction of Compulsory Primary Education.—The first World War that broke out in 1914 slightly impeded the progress of education. This was, however, not very prominent. But the "Non-Cooperation Movement" that followed, resulted in the boycott of schools, and school children remained absent from schools for long periods The 1920's brought out the constitution of many boards and committees which worked for several reforms in the system of education almost changing its pattern, the most important of these being the Compulsory Primary Education Act of 1920. Rules under this Act were published in November, 1921 The Act empowered the local bodies to enforce primary education under compulsion in schools of their respective jurisdictions But in Jabalpur Compulsory Primary Education was introduced only in 1928, that too in five wards.

The year 1924-25 showed a slight decrease in the number of primary school boys The reason may be ascribed to the industrialization of the District The opening of "bidi" workshops drew a number of poor children away from schools on account of the high wages offered No serious attempts were made to secure attendance also

The High School Education Act.—The High School Education Act was brought into operation on 7th August 1923. and shortly afterwards the High School Board consisting of 31 members representing various branches of studies, with the Director of Public Instruction as its Chairman and the Deputy Director of Public Instruction as its Secretary, was constituted The Board had many subcommittees under it, such as, the Curricula Committee, the Examination Committee, Finance Committee, Recognition Committee, etc. Hindi and Marathi were the two vernacular media prescribed. Only one vernacular was permitted as the medium in a particular school According to the recommendations of the Curricula Committee the syllabuses of Primary and Secondary education were revised. The revised primary curriculum meant for a four-year course (as against

the existing five-year course) had drawing, gardening and hand-work courses. The Middle school curriculum had English as an optional subject. The High school Certificate examination of 1924 was held under the auspices of the Board. Diversity in the media of instruction made the High School Examination a complicated one.

Physical Education.—A systematic physical education was hitherto unknown to the educational institutions. The only physical exercise that existed in some schools was the Desi-kasarat. Crude form of drills, though a later development, was also not uncommon. On the recommendations of the Physical and Military Training Committee appointed by the Government, A. J. Danielson was appointed Superintendent of Physical Training and attached to the Spence Training College, Jabalpur, from 9th November 1927. Danielson visited many schools and suggested ways and means for the improvement of physical training. These suggestions on approval of the Government of Central Provinces and Berar brought out a detailed syllabus for physical education popularly known as "Danielson Syllabus" which was introduced in all schools. The drill-masters were replaced by physical training instructors by 1930-31.

In 1928-29 a conference of Normal School Superintendents of the Province was held at Jabalpur under the presidentship of F. K. Clark, the then Principal of Spence Training College. The conference made certain suggestions for a change in the Normal School curriculum These changes were quite welcome, for they aimed at improving the efficiency of Primary school teachers. The Christian Normal School for Women was transferred from Jabalpur to Khandwa

In 1929-30 Jabalpur District showed a marked increase by 1667 in the enrolment of scholars. But this was soon hampered by the Civil Disobedience Movement (1930) which resulted in the dislocation of work in colleges and schools, and the discipline of the schools and colleges was very seriously affected. as expressed in the following passage.

"the discipline of the Colleges was seriously affected by the Civil Disobedience movement in the early part of the session. Owing to the frequent *hartals* observed by the students, work practically came to a standstill in July. Warnings were issued by the College authorities, but to no effect. Finally, early in August the Government Colleges were closed. In regard to Secondary Schools the class work was completely disorganised."[1]

1. C. P. and Berar Education Report (quinquennial), 1932, p. 8.

The Mc Fadyen Committee—In 1928 the High School Education Board appointed a committee known as the Mc Fadyen Committee[1] "to scrutinize thoroughly the present curriculum prescribed for middle and high school classes and to suggest such modifications as are desirable." The accepted recommendations *inter alia* included the institution of groups of subjects for option, establishment of modern types of schools with practical subjects, introduction of domestic science in middle schools and compulsory physical training. These recommendations were put into practice by many schools of Jabalpur District. The introduction of subjects which were of special interest in the general education of women folk of Jabalpur got speedier implementation only at a later stage.

Mention has already been made about the administrative difficulties involved in having different media of instruction. The medium of instruction in middle schools was the vernacular of the District and in High Schools, Vernacular or English. It may be recalled here that previous to 1922 the medium in high schools was only English.

Introduction of Agriculture in Middle Schools—Government now decided to provide instruction in Agriculture in certain Vernacular Middle Schools which had in their vicinity. experimental farms controlled by the Department of Agriculture. With the help of local assistants of the Department of Agriculture, instruction was introduced in Panagar school of Jabalpur District in 1929-30. This was, however, discontinued in 1934-35 for want of trained teachers.

Compulsory Primary Education Act amended—With all this, generally speaking, the progress of education in Jabalpur District was satisfactory. Primary education. however, had yet to get a sound footing. The general statistics, no doubt, showed increase. The total number of boys' primary schools which was 172 with 11,012 pupils in 1926-27 rose to 178 with 15,690 pupils in 1931-32. But the problem of wastage and stagnation in the primary classes was quite disheartening and discouraging, and it could not be estimated correctly since certain students took more than four

1. The Committee has been styled so in the name of its Chairman Mc Fadyen. Rev. Dr. Mc Fadyen was the 2nd Vice-Chancellor of Nagpur University from the 23rd November, 1929.

years to ascend from Class I to class IV. The Inspector of Jabalpur Circle attributed these conditions "to the general illiteracy" and to "lassitude on the part of the teachers.". In Jabalpur District the District Council schools had 87.8 per cent and Municipal schools 85.9 per cent trained teachers in 1931-32. The aided primary schools had 48.7 per cent trained teachers. The average salaries of teachers which had undergone a revision varied from circle to circle. The average salaries of primary teachers in Jabalpur Circle in 1931-32 were as under:—

	Rs.
District Councils	21 1
Municipal	27.5
Aided	22.1
Government	32.0

As a remedy to the above problems the Compulsory Primary Education Act of 1920 was suitably amended. The new amendments provided for the gradual compulsion in the age group of 6 to 11 and also to enable Government to force the Local Authority to introduce compulsion. For the implementation of Compulsory Primary Education in the five wards* of Jabalpur Municipal Committee, a recurring grant of Rs 2176 was paid in 1931-32 The introduction of hand-spinning and weaving as optional subjects in primary curriculum was sanctioned as an experimental measure for two years in 1932-33.

Progress of Secondary Education.—The position of Secondary Schools in the 1930's was better. By 1930-31 the Secondary schools of Jabalpur District had 100 per cent trained teachers. Damoh was the only other district that shared this advantage in the whole of the Central Provinces and Berar during the year.

High school education also showed good signs of progress. The High School Education Board gave recognition to the Anglo-Marathi High School, Jabalpur and Vishnu Datta High School, Sihora for the IX and X classes From the Model High School, Jabalpur and B. M. Girls High School, Katni 93.7 per cent and 76.6 per cent students, respectively, were successful. The European and Anglo-Indian Schools constituted only a small number. In 1935 the Cambridge High School Certificate class was attached to the Christ Church Boys' High School, Jabalpur. Jabalpur was one of the three centres where the Junior and Senior Cambridge Examinations were conducted.

The Vidya Mandir Scheme.—In 1937-38 primary education opened a new chapter with the inauguration of "Vidya Mandirs"

* Omti, Galgala, Hanumantal, Marthatal and Bhantalaiya were the five wards

under the Vidya Mandir Scheme sponsored by the then Education Minister Pandit Ravishankar Shukla. The Scheme contemplates that a village or groups of villages within a radius of one mile having no school and having not less than 40 children of school-going age shall have a Vidya Mandir. The institution of these Vidya Mandirs depended upon the contribution and magnanimity of the public. In 1938-39 the scheme of establishment of these schools came into effect. The Vidya Mandirs, though few in number, proved a success in Jabalpur District. The Vidya Mandir syllabus for a four-year course prepared by the Syllabus Committee on the lines of the Zakir Hussain Syllabus was introduced in the Vidya Mandirs which was equipped with craft-implements, raw materials and suitable furniture. In 1938-39 the Basic National Education syllabus was accepted by the Provincial Government.

Primary education showed satisfactory progress in the 1940's though the Freedom Movement of 1942 had affected education of the District in general. In 1940-41 there were 208 primary schools with a total enrolment of 18,102. The schools under District Council had 82 per cent trained teachers while those under Municipal Committee had 92 per cent. The Primary Certificate examination recorded a pass of 78.4 per cent The minimum qualification of primary school teachers was the passing of 7th class examination. They were further trained at Normal Schools for two years and awarded Trained Teachers' Certificates.

The Middle schools had two divisions in the 1940's., *viz.*, the Indian Middle Schools and the Indian English Middle Schools. The first stage had V to VII standard at the end of which there was a terminal examination which passed the students to the 2nd stage and eventually High School.

The minimum qualification of a High school teacher was a University degree except Drawing master, Music teachers and Manual Training instructors. They were further sent for training. No teacher in Government service was confirmed unless he was professionally trained. All teachers, primary, middle and high school, had the same service conditions and were governed by the Fundamental Rules.

The period 1942-47 was characterised by certain significant events, the most important being the restoration of the cut in the grants to local bodies and private instituations to enable them to grant increments and dearness allowance to educational staff.

Equally significant was the setback in the general Progress of education caused by the World War II when the inspecting staff of the District were required to function as recruiting officers in addition to their own duties. Added to this was the 'Quit India' agitation generally styled the '1942 Movement' launched by Mahatma Gandhi The progress of education was, however, restored by 1945.

Jabalpur witnessed the Indian Independence in 1947 with 287 Primary schools, 43 Middle schools, 8 High and Higher Secondary schools, 3 Arts and Science Colleges, 2 Teacher's Training Colleges, one Law College and one Engineering College. The following table will speak for the progress of education in general during the period 1947-1961 which can rightly be called a period of educational reconstruction.

Serial No.	Type of Institution	1947						1961					
		No. of schools	Enrolment		Teachers			No. of Schools	Enrolment		Techers		
			Boys	Girls	Trained	Un-trained	Total		Boys	Girls	Trained	Unt-rained	Total
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)	(8)	(9)	(10)	(11)	(12)	(13)	(14)
1	Pre-primary	..	..	..	..	..	..	19	..	..	—	..	..
2	Primary	287	18,224	7,333	..	..	842*	778	66,267	25,686	..	..	**2,898
3	Middle	43	9,295	2,640	275	157	432	103	22,218	5,440	532	325	857
4	High & Hihger Secondary ..	8	1,777	85	52	62	114	58	20,311	6,419	849	451	1,300

*Male teachers 530 | Female teachers 312 | 842

**Male teachers 1,673 | Female teachers 1,225 | 2,898

Organisation and Set-up.

Having been a part of the Saugor and Nerbudda Territories, Jabalpur was attached to the administrative machinery of North-Western Provinces from 1818-20 to 1861[1]. During this period the educational institutions of this District were under the administrative control of the General Committee of Public Instruction, Fort William, especially with regard to their finance. In 1862 when Jabalpur became part of the Central Provinces it had its administration under the Director of Public Instruction[2] whose department was the directing and inspecting body. The Director of Public Instruction was assisted by Inspectors, Assistant Inspectors, District Inspectors and Sub-Inspectors of schools of the Education Department and Deputy Commissioners, Tahsildars and Naib Tahsildars of the Revenue Department. All primary and lower middle Class schools were managed by the Deputy Commissioners, while High, Zila and Normal Schools were exclusively under the control of the Education Department For purposes of administration the Province was divided into three Circles, *viz*., Northern Circle, Southern Circle and Eastern Circle under three Inspectors of Schools. The Northern Circle comprised seven districts including Jabalpur. In addition, there were the extra-departmental controlling agencies, *viz.,* the District Council, Municipal Committee and School Committees. The School Committees had the civil officers and Inspectors of Schools as their presiding members and public men interested in education were also invited to serve. The three inspectoral circles were later, in 1904-06, reorganised and four circles, *viz.,* Nagpur, Jabalpur, Nerbudda and Chhattisgarh circles, corresponding to the Commissioner's divisions were constituted. An Inspector was appointed, in addition, to be exclusively in charge of the European schools. In 1922 this post was abolished. An Inspectress of Schools was appointed to inspect all Primary European and English teaching schools for boys and girls, and English teaching middle and high schools for girls. The Deputy Director of Public Instruction, on the creation of a new post, was incharge of the European schools in addition to his normal duties. The Deputy Director was the ex-officio Secretary of the Board of High

1 Consequent on the Bundela uprising in 1842 Jabalpur was under the administration of a separate Political Agent in the Agra division of Bengal Presidency from 1842 to 1851-52 But the educational administration was still attached to that of North-Western Provinces—See Resolution of G/I dated 29th April 1843 in Selections from Educational Records, Part II, 1840-1859, by J A. Richey, pp. 87—88.

2. The designation was subsequently changed into Inspector General of Education in the 1870's. This was again restored in 1901-02.

School Education. This system continued for sometime and in the 1930's Jabalpur Circle had one Inspector, One Assistant Inspector, 12 Deputy Inspectors and one Inspectress to inspect 9 High Schools, 3 Normal Schools, 22 Anglo-Vernacular Middle Schools, 41 Vernacular Middle Schools and 595 Primary Schools. The Inspectress of Schools, Jabalpur Circle, had two Assistant Inspectresses of Schools to assist her. The Circle of the Inspectress of Schools, Jabalpur included Chhatisgarh Circle also. The Director of Public Instruction used to send a detailed annual report containing expenditure statements on the state and progress of education in Central Provinces and Berar to the Chief Commissioner on the basis of reports received from his subordinates. In 1928-29 the Local Government sanctioned the appointment of two auditors in the office of the Director of Public Instruction to inspect the accounts of the department.

The administrative machinery was reorganised on 1st October 1938. This resulted in the abolition of the posts of Circle Inspectors and creation of a District Inspector of Schools for each district. Three Deputy Directors were also appointed to assist the Director of Public Instruction, in addition to an Officer on Special Duty. Two years later the three posts of Deputy Directors were abolished and four posts of Divisional Superintendents were created one each for the revenue divisions, their jurisdiction corresponding to the Circle Inspectors. For want of suitable accommodation at Jabalpur, the Divisional Superintendent of Education, Jabalpur had his headquarters temporarily at Hoshangabad. This was shifted to Jabalpur in 1946. The Female Inspectorate remained unchanged till 1st May 1945.

In 1945 the four posts of Assistant Inspectresses of Schools were abolished and 6 posts of District Inspectress of schools were created, one being posted at Jabalpur.

Jabalpur is now one of the divisional headquarters of the nine educational divisions of Madhya Pradesh. The two separate administrative branches for the education of boys and girls ceased to exist from 1960. With effect from April 1960 the post of Inspectress of Schools was abolished. The Divisional Superintendent of Education is now in charge of both boys' and girls' education. Under him works the District Education Officer, corresponding to the former District Inspector of Schools, who is in charge of all schools upto the middle standard. He is assisted by 21 Assistant Inspectors of Schools. The Government High, Higher Secondary and Multipurpose Higher Secondary Schools of the district are controlled by the

Divisional Superintendent of Education. The Divisional Superintendent of Education has wide administrative powers. The Post Graduate Basic Training College is under the direct administration of the Director of Public Instruction. The Collegiate Education of the District is administered by the Director-*cum*-Deputy Secretary, Collegiate Education, Madhya Pradesh, who is under the State Education Secretary.

LITERACY AND EDUCATIONAL STANDARDS

The Census of 1901 recorded a population of 6,80,585 for Jabalpur District with 33,599 male and 2,217 female literates which constituted 10.01 per cent and 0.64 per cent of the total male and female population, respectively. The years 1911 and 1921 recording 6.03 per cent and 7.18 per cent of total literates, respectively, indexed an increase of 9,169 persons and 17,719 persons, respectively, over the total number of literates in 1901. This progress, though small, may be said to be satisfactory since the total population figures on 1911 and 1921 did not show much variation. This slight increase should perhaps be attributed to the remarkable educational activities that characterised the two intercensal period as described in the early part of this chapter. The 1931 figures were far more satisfactory. When the total population figure showed only a slight increase the literacy percentage, especially that of females, recorded a favourable rise. Considerable improvement was apparent in 1951 when the literate males and females constituted 29.97 per cent and 7.92 per cent of their respective population figures as against 16.74 per cent and 3.41 per cent of 1941 The population figure of Jabalpur District recorded in 1961 was 12,73,825 consisting of 6,62,045 males and 6,11,780 females with 41.04 per cent and 15.03 per cent literates, respectively. There was a marked increase in the number of literates in 1961. The percentage of literacy of persons of all standards according to 1961 census was 28.6. The following table will reveal that the progress of education in Jabalpur District has always been steady though slow at certain stages. The classification of literates under different educational standards is also detailed in the second table below:

Year	Population			Literates			Literacy Percentages		
	Total	Males	Females	Total	Males	Females	Total	Males	Females
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)	(8)	(9)	(10)
1901	6,80,585	3,35,552	3,45,033	35,816	33,599	2,217	5.26	10.01	00.64
1911	7,45,892	3,73,173	3,72,719	44,985	41,652	3,333	6.03	11.16	00.89
1921	7,45,685	3,76,959	3,68,726	53,535	47,913	5,622	7.18	12.71	1.52
1931	7,73,811	3,91,649	3,82,162	67,799	49,260	8,539	8.76	15.13	2.26
1941	9,10,603	4,69,550	4,41,053	93,633	78,595	15,038	10.28	16.74	3.41
1951	10,45,596	5,38,739	5,06,857	2,01,597	1,61,435	40,162	19.28	29.97	7.92
1961	12,73,825	6,62,045	6,11,780	3,63,656	2,71,714	91,942	28.55	41.04	15.03

Educational Standard	Total			Rural			Urban		
	Persons	Males	Females	Persons	Males	Females	Persons	Males	Females
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)	(8)	(9)	(10)
Literates	1,64,318	1,32,375	3,1943	83,014	75,222	7,792	81,304	57,153	24,151
Middle School	19,827	13,943	5,881	2,347	1,980	367	17,480	11,963	5,517
Matriculation or S. L. C.	11,272	9,792	1,480	977	911	66	10,295	8,881	1,414
Higher Secondary Intermediate in Arts or Science	2,333	1,987	346	264	243	21	2,069	1,744	325
Graduate in Arts or Science	2,045	1,788	257	209	201	8	1,836	1,587	249
Post graduates in Arts or Science	396	352	44	16	16	..	380	336	44
Teaching	555	388	167	213	206	7	342	182	160
Engineering	103	103	..	14	14	..	89	89	..
Agriculture	17	17	..	4	4	..	13	13	..
Veterinary	16	16	..	1	1	..	15	15	..
Commerce	65	65	..	2	2	..	63	63	..
Legal	260	254	6	29	29	..	231	225	6
Medical	252	235	17	20	19	1	232	216	16
Others	138	120	18	70	68	2	68	52	16
Total—all educational standards — —	2,01,597	1,61,435	40,162	87,180	78,916	8,264	1,14,417	82,519	31,898

Spread of Education Among Women.—

If one considers that the progress of education in the District was slow in general, the female education may be said to have been very slow. Some efforts in this direction were made for the first time between 1854 and 1870. The two officers who directed public instruction in the North-Western Provinces during this period, Reid and Kempson, and Sir William Muir who became Lt. Governor in 1868, were the pioneers of female education in this area and they exhibited everlasting zeal in this particular field. As a result of their efforts eleven schools—2 in Jabalpur, 5 in Sihora and 4 in Murwara—were established in the District in 1863. By 1874-75 these three groups of schools had an enrolment of 76,111, and 123. respectively. The one serious problem now was the scarcity of trained female teachers to be appointed in these schools. So, to enable adequate supply of trained female teachers, a Female Normal School was opened in January 1869. In the beginning much difficulty was experienced in procuring candidates for admission to the training. After a period of five years the institution had on its roll 16 trainees. No fees were charged. The annual cost of educating one pupil was Rs. 131-6-9. The medium was vernacular. In 1873 the Jabalpur Convent school for girls was opened with a few pupils In two years the number of scholars rose to 63, 53 scholars being instructed through English medium and 10 through vernacular. The fee rate ranged from 1½ to 3 rupees. The inspection of these girls schools created further problems to the administrators. The following passage gives an interesting account. "To European officers it was hardly to be expected that the school door should be readily opened; and, except in the case of pupils of a very tender age, examination was tempered by the intervention of a parda "[1] This, however, resulted in the appointment of a European lady to visit these schools. In 1881-82 the Convent school had 138 girls on the roll; 7 in the middle and the rest in the primary department. There were in all 16 girls schools including 8 Government girls schools and one practising school attached to the Normal School The total number of girls passing the upper and lower primary examinations was 48. The schools at Sleemanabad and Bilhari showed good progress. Out of the 30 women under training in the Female Normal School seven were widows, four were wives of men in private employment, 17 were wives of trainees in Male Normal School and two were wives of school masters in Jabalpur. There were six private schools conducted by the Zenana Mission. Local public men interested in girl's education

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1. Report by the Provincial Committee representing North-Western Provinces and Oudh in the Education Commission, p. 33.

were not rare. One Rishi Ram of Bilhari built a good building at a cost of Rs. 2,000 to house the girls' school at Bilhari. Rishi Ram's efforts for the propagation of girls' education in Bilhari were laudable.

In 1884-85, under the revised scholarship rules, girls below the age of 14 were awarded scholarships[1]. There were then seven Departmental and District Council girls' schools, besides the one connected with the Normal School. These schools contained in all 223 pupils with an average attendance of 137. The other girls schools conducted by the Zenana Mission were showing good signs of progress. The total number of girls under instruction was 716 The total number of girls schools in the District rose to 23 in the next year with an enrolment of 861. The four academic years between 1892-93 and 1895-96 recorded slow but satisfactory increase in the number of girl students under instruction, numbering 1195, 1221, 1191 and 1300, respectively. But this progress was enjoyed solely by the urban area. Instruction of girls outside the Jabalpur city was not showing any sign of advance The rural population were still not in favour of female education In 1901-02 the number of girls under instruction was 1878, which decreased to 1821 and 1811 in the subsequent years, the fall being due to the prevalence of plague.

The opening of two English Middle Schools for girls, *viz*, the Hawabagh Methodist Episcopal Mission English Middle School and the Murwara Zenana Mission English Middle School in 1905-06 and 1906-07, respectively, was an important event in the history of female education in Jabalpur. In 1910-11 the curricula of girls primary and middle schools were revised. All possible efforts were made to encourage attendance of girls in boys schools where there were no girls schools But both primary and secondary education of girls failed to show any sign of improvement. This made the authorities hesitate to open more schools. The problem was more serious in regard to rural areas. A fresh grant-in aid system was devised for the opening of girls schools anew. The policy was that grant was to be paid to a committee formed to open a school, and the school should be managed by that body for two years. Expenditure had to be divided equally between local subscription and Government grant. At the end of two years if the authorities were convinced that the venture was succeeding and that the school had a prospect of permanency it was taken over by Government.

1. For details see Appendix A of C P. Education Report, 1884-85.

,In 1914-15 an Inspectress of Schools was appointed for Jabalpur Circle with headquarters at Jabalpur. The next decade was a period of very little progress inspite if continued efforts. and the Inspectress reported in 1922-23 that poor attendance, epidemics, high prices, inadequate staff and reduced inspection were factors that caused retardation in girls' education. Added to this was the dislocation of educational activities resulting from the Civil Disobedience Movement launched by Mahatma Gandhi in 1920. The number of girls in boys primary schools also began to decrease steadily. "In this circ'e", wrote the dissatisfied Inspectress in 1923-24, "except in large towns and a few small places, it can safely be said that there is no genuine desire for girls' education..................The really hopeful feature is that in large towns and villages where we have a really good staff, the parents send their children, and the children come wil'ingly and regularly "[1] Towards the end of 1927 the Local Government appointed a Committee[2] including women, to enquire into the prospects of improvement of female education with special reference to co-education, curricula, schools, training and supply of efficient teachers, and management of vernacular schools. Efforts to encourage co education met with great success in primary stage. partly because of the system of payment of bonuses to headmasters for admitting girls to their schools and partly to the fact that the boys schools were better staffed than the girls schools. The teachers in girls pr'mary schools were mostly either old men or untrained women.

One of the aims of the adult female education now sponsored by the C. E. Z. Mission Society was to induce mothers to send their daughters to schools.

The Mc Fadyen Committee of 1928 recommended the inclusion of practical cookery and care of infants in the Domestic Science Course for girls in middle schools, provision of facilities for the instruct'on of women teachers in Domest'c Sc'ence, and the introduction of compu'sory physical training according to "Danielson Syllabus" in middle and high schools. Implementation of these recommendations was gradually effected.

The two girls High Schools in the District, the C. E. Z. School and Johnson Girls High School now started Intermedidate classes. In 1928-29 the number of girl students in Robertson Co'lege was one, which rose to two in 1932 and five in 1933. The Female Education

1. C P and Berar Education Report, 1923-24, p 30
2. The Committee had 15 members with the then Director of Public Instruction, R H. Beckett, as its chairman and was styled the 'Female Education Committee'.

Committee had by now submitted its recommendations. The primary curriculum of girls was to include reading, writing, Arithmetic, Geography, Sewing and Physical Exercises as compulsory subjects. In addition, one of the three optional subjects, *viz.*, Gardening, Handwork and Drawing, was also to be chosen. The Committee also recommended the institution of a publicity organisation including interested men and women with headquarters at Nagpur and sub-committees at district headquarters to stimulate public interest in girls' education. These recommendations were given effect immediately. An Anglo-Vernacular School for girls was opened at Jabalpur in 1931. In 1932-33 there were in all 35 primary and middle girls schools with 3214 pupils in the District as against the same number of schools with 2916 pupils of the previous year. In two years the number of schools rose to 38 and that of pupils to 3,408. The number of girls High Schools with Intermediate Classes remained two. Both these schools were Mission institutions

Contrary to expectations the working of the Ladies' Committees of Jabalpur was totally disappointing. The Inspectress lamented their ephemeral nature thus: "It is difficult to say where these exist for, in some cases, almost as soon as they are appointed, they cease to function."[1]

The Muhammadan Community was well represented in the Primary and Middle girls schools. In 1939-40 the Anjuman Girls High School was opened.

The 1940's showed considerable improvement in female education Girls were freely admitted to boys' high schools in Jabalpur town. This marked a step forward in co-education though it was yet to get a sound footing. The participation of girls in athletic meets from 1937-38 onwards augured well for a smooth system of co-education. When the year 1947 came to a close there were 7,333 girls in the Primary, 2,640 in Middle and 85 in the High schools under instruction These figures rose to 16,835, 4,363 and 5.617, respectively, in 1961. Moreover, in 1951, the girls of Jabalpur enjoyed the privilege of having 19 Balmandirs with 29 trained lady teachers, 86 Primary schools with 410 trained and 137 untrained women teachers, and 17 middle schools with 131 trained and 32 untrained teachers

The post-Independence period has thus shown tremendous progress in female education. In all primary schools co-education exists now. In 1953-54 the Sadar Kanya English Middle School and the

1. C. P. and Berar Education Report, 1936, p. 44.

Guru Nanak English Middle School for girls were recognised and the Satpura Mission Girls Middle School was raised to the status of a High School. The Sadar Kanya Shala Middle School was also upgraded into a High School. The Arya Kanya Shala and Hussainia Girls Middle schools now got recognition. At the close of the year 1960-61 there were 15 girls Higher Secondary schools in the District of which 10 were located in the city, viz., Johnson Girls School, Christ Church Girls School, St. Joseph's Convent, St. Norbert's Convent, Maharani Laxmibai Government Girls School, Satpura Girls School, Seth Nathuman Jain Trust Kanya Vidyalaya, Guru Nank Girls School, Hitkarini Girls High School and Kanya Madhyamik Shala with a total enrolment of 4,445. In the following year the High and Higher Secondary schools had 5,617 pupils on roll. In addition, there are two special schools, one junior basic school and one pre-primary training centre. The serious problem of getting trained lady teachers has since been solved Women are being trained to meet the increasing demand of trained lady teachers in all educational institutions upto the Higher Secondary standards. Ample facilities have been provided for their in-service training also. In order to promote education among women, a senior Lady Officer of class I Service has recently been appointed as Deputy Director of Public Instruction exclusively in charge of girls' education.

In 1954 Government received a donation of Rs. 1,00,000 from an industrialist and philanthropist of Jabalpur, Mohanlal Hargovindas, for the opening of a Home Science college. The college accordingly started functioning in July 1954 in three rooms of Kalaniketan with 18 students. In the same year a private college, the Mankunwarbai Arts College, for women was started by the Nari Shiksha Mandal. When this institution was taken over by Government in 1955 it was merged with the Home Science College. With the inception of science classes in 1958 this college became an important institution for women's education. It has now an enrolment of about 1,000 girl students, with 60 gazetted lecturers and assistant professors. It is now housed in a commodious building of its own in the Wright Town. There is a well-furnished hostel with nearly 250 inmates.

Spread of Education among Backward Classes and Tribes

The education of the backward classes and tribes had a very slow growth as is the case with all other districts. We may attribute this to the social and economic conditions that prevailed in the District often depriving them of the opportunities for advancement.

Under British rule the earliest effort to educate the depressed class—so were they called—may be traced back to the opening of seven Primary schools especially for the Gonds of the Imlia estate in 1885-86. Jabalpur District then had 98,384 Gonds and 55,112 Kols included in its population. But the schools had always recorded a decrease in attendance by Gond children, for their education in these schools would begin and end with a month's school-going. In 1907-08 the number of aborigines increased by 50 per cent but only 12 Gonds passed the Primary examination as against 46 in the preceding year. But untouchability and other evils of society discouraged the education of the lower castes as they were not allowed to sit under the school-roof with their high-caste brethren. The Government schools always welcomed the lower caste children. But the masters would generally "neglect them in favour of boys of better castes; while in schools held in private buildings, members of the untouchable castes are nelegated to the verandahs."[1] A decade passed; but the conditions remained the same. In 1921 Government appointed a Committee of Officials and Non-Officials to consider the needs of the depressed classes in the matter of education and employment. Liberal grants were paid by government to schools intended for boys of these classes. Bonuses were paid to headmasters as rewards for the passing of Primary Certificate Examination by boys of these classes. Middle school scholarships at the rate of Rs. 3 or Rs. 6 per month, High school Rs. 5 or 8 per month, and Collegiate scholarship of Rs. 11 or 22 per month were instituted[1]. In 1925 Jabalpur recorded a further decrease of pupils and the inspector reported that "these pupils are very irregular in atendance with the result that many names are struck off the rolls." The Vocational Training Committee's report of 1923 ruled out a proposal for the establishment of separate Vocatonal Training schools for depressed classes since the general standard of education could not be improved. The scholarships were, however, revised in 1926-27. The Middle school scholarship now was Rs. 3 or 8 per month, High school Rs. 5 or 10 per month, and Collegiate Rs 10 or 14 per month for Intermediate and Rs. 14 or 18 per month for degree classes[2]. But admission to the local schools was still a problem. Though the Chamars and Mahars ventilated their resentment against the higher castes and desired equality, they still failed to understand the necessity of education. The attendance in schools had considerably decreased. Girls hardly entered a school. Boys used to leave the school after a few months' attendance and this deprived them of the advantage of middle school scholarships.

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1. *Ibid.* 1909—10, p 4.
1. Scholarships of higher value were awarded to pupils not living with their parents.
2. Collegiate scholarships were reduced owing to the decrease in the cost of living.

In 1932 the Inspector of Jabalpur Circle reported that "the higher castes are no longer continuing their old stiff attitude"; and again in 1937 he said "In class-rooms and play-ground the pupils mix freely with children of all castes and communities and enjoy equal rights." There was marked increase in the number of pupils of backward classes from Primary to High School level.

In the 1940's special facilities were extended to the education of harijans of the District. The District Committee appointed by the Harijan Sewa Sangh[1], Central Provinces and Berar in 1932 received an annual Government grant of Rs 300 for the education of harijans and another Rs. 300 for the supply of books and school material to harijan students.

In the late 1940's with the attainment of Independence activities in this field gained further momentum.

In 1954 the Madhya Pradesh Vanvasi Seva[2] Mandal started functioning in Jabalpur. In a period of three years the Mandal established several Primary and Middle Schools in the District One Higher Secondary School, the Bapu Vanvasi Seva Mandal Higher Secondary School at Vilayatkalan of Murwara tahsil; three Middle Schools, one each at Jabalpur. Sihora and Patan and 21 Primary Schools, 5 each in Jabalpur. Sihora and Murwara and 6 in Patan tahsil, are now being managed by this body. In 1960-61 there were 12,510 (633 girls) students in Primary and 4,624 (262 girls) in Secondary stages as against 11,819 (549 girls) in Primary and 3,659 (71 girls) in Secondary of 1957-58

In 1958 a Harijan Balwadi was opened by the State Tribal Welfare Department at village Shajpur of Patan tahsil for the pre-primary education of harijan children on the lines of the Montessori system. Children are given free mid-day meals here The institution is under the supervision of a trained lady teacher.

Liberal grants by way of stipends and scholarships were made available to the scheduled caste and tribe children by the State Tribal Welfare Department.

1 This later became the Mahakoshal Harijan Sewak Sangh and was responsible for its working to the Akhil Bhartiya Harijan Sewak Sangh, Delhi. After 1956 the provincial branch was bifurcated into two divisions centering round Indore and Chhatarpur, Jabalpur being under the Harijan Sewak Sangh Vindhya-Mahakoshal region, Chhatarpur.

2. This was founded by the late Thakar Bapa in 1944 at Mandla, called "Gond Sewak Sangh". Its Zonal Office is located at Jabalpur.

The State Tribal Welfare Department is the agency to distribute the pre-matric scholarships instituted by the State Government and the post-matric scholarships by the Central Government. In Jabalpur District all these scholarships are disbursed by Collector. The Divisional Superintendent of Education and the District Education Officer assist him in this respect. Prior to 1960-61 all the post-matric scholarships were granted directly by the Government of India.

In 1961-62, 1,218 scheduled caste students (865 girls), 2,073 scheduled tribe students (82 girls) and 194 other backward class students (23 girls) were awarded pre-matric scholarships to the tune of Rs. 33, 400, Rs. 39,000 and Rs. 11,750, respectively, at the Primary, Middle and High School stages of their education. So also 178 schedu'ed caste students, 116 scheduled tribe students and 277 other backward class students received Government of India Scholarships amounting to Rs. 66,977, Rs. 53,611 and Rs. 1,78,032, respectively, in 1961-62.

GENERAL EDUCATION

Pre-primary Education.

A systematic pre-primary education is of recent origin, and is preparatory to primary education. The Kindergarten classes attached to certain European and Anglo-Indian schools and the nursery classes conducted by some private individuals for children below the age of six years, got government recognition in 1948. But the scarcity of trained teachers almost blocked its further progress. In 1950 the Hawabhag Training Institute started a Nursery School and one year diploma course in nursery education. This brought forth many trained teachers and in 1956 Government directed the Janpada Sabhas to open Bal Mandirs wherever it was possible. Seven[1] Balmandirs were opened very shortly and each received a grant of Rs. 1,000 for equipment in 1957-58. More Balmandirs were started by Government and private bodies in the subsequent years. In 1956 there were 8 Balmandirs with 100 boys, 29 girls, 4 trained and 4 untrained lady teachers. These figures rose to 15 Balmandirs with 365 boys and 689 girls, 19 trained and 12 untrained teachers in 1961.

Primary Education.

The educational eclipse caused by the World War II and the Freedom Movement gave way to further progress in Primary educa-

1 Panagar, Sagra Barela, Patan, Katangi, Khirehni and Relief Camp Katni

tion only by 1946 with the return of the popular ministries. The increased Government grants to Local Bodies enabled them to improve the pay-scale and allowances of primary school teachers and to provide them more amenities by the introduction of Provident Fund Scheme, etc. The grants-in-aid received by these Local Bodies from Government ranged from 50 per cent to 100 per cent of the total expenditure. The Primary schools of the rural areas were now under the Janpada Sabhas[1] and those in the urban areas under the Corporation[2] and Municipalities. The revised curriculum of 1957 was being followed. Collection of nominal fees was discretionary on the part of management. Girls were excluded from payment of fees in schools owned by Government and Local Bodies.

In 1950 it was laid down in the Constitution that children upto the age of 14 should get free and compulsory primary education. It was also decided that Basic education may be introduced in all primary schools. The Jabalpur Corporation now introduced compulsion in all the 30 wards. The increased demand for primary education resulted in the double shift system of many schools. The average expenditure now was Rs. 11·9 per boy and Rs. 23·3 per girl. With the Reorganisation of States the V class of Middle school has been added to the four year primary course for bringing uniformity in the pattern of primary education all over the State. An integrated syllabus[3] was enforced in all Primary schools of Madhya Pradesh in July 1959 which included all types of craftwork and activities. At the close of the Second Five Year Plan Jabalpur District had 778 Primary schools (excluding Balmandirs) with 91,953 pupils (including 25,686 girls) and 2,898 teachers, as against 562 primary schools with 67,432 pupils (including 17,732 girls) and 1,886 teachers of 1956. And by 1960-61 there were 72 boys' schools in the urban area of the District under the Compulsory Education Scheme with 19,899 boys and 578 teachers. In 42 Primary schools of the District children were provided with free mid-day meals. On 1st December 1959 Government extended Compulsory Education to the Sihora Block Development area having 163 villages. When the scheme was launched there were in all 49 schools with 8,261 children belonging to the age group 6 to 11 under instruction. Towards the close of the Plan period, *i.e.*, 1961, the number of schools rose to 62 including one senior Basic School. It is contemplated that Jabalpur District may have a further addition of about 200 primary schools for the education of children falling under the age group of 6 to 11 before the Third Plan is over.

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1 In 1948 Janpada Sabhas were formed replacing the District Councils.
2 Jabalpur Corporation was established in 1950.
3 The syllabus is based on the syllabus formulated by the Hindustani Talimi Sangh, Sewagram.

Basic Education.

The history of Basic Education scheme in Jabalpur District is confined to only a decade. Prior to this we saw elementary basic education forming part of the primary curriculum under the Vidya Mandir Scheme. Gandhiji believed that only through productive work the human society could advance. For this an 'organic integration of the skills of the intellect and the skills of the fingers' is necessary. Accordingly a syllabus was chalked out by educationists and introduced in the Primary, Middle and Higher Secondary schools in the early 1950's as a Plan scheme. Study of crafts thus became an important item in the curriculum. In Jabalpur many Primary schools were converted into Basic schools. For the introduction of this scheme in more institutions trained teachers were to be prepared. The Female Normal School of Jabalpur was converted into a Basic Normal School in 1952, and in 1956 one-year training course replaced the existing two-year course. In 1960 there were 182 trainees, and a practising school having 722 pupils. Another Basic Normal School was started in 1954 under the First Plan scheme to train teachers by a one-year course. A practising Basic School with class I to V was attached to it. In 1961 it had 200 pupils. This school was attached to the Post-Graduate Basic Training College till the latter's transfer to Bilaspur in 1960. Now it is incharge of a principal and is being controlled by the Principal, Prantiya Shikshan Mahavidyalaya.

The Post-Graduate Basic Training College of Jabalpur was started in collaboration with the Government of India Scheme No. 1 "Intensive educational development in selected areas" in June 1955. As against the sanctioned strength of 40 only 20 students—3 M. A's, 3 B. Sc's and 14 B. A's—were enrolled as trainees in 1957-58. All trainees were from Government institutions and received a stipend of Rs. 50 per month.

The Basic Agriculture School at Adhartal was also started in 1954 to provide one-year training to Gram Sewaks in theory and practice of Agriculture, Agriculture Engineering, Animal Husbandry and Public Health. To advise the Government in matters connected with the spread of basic education the State Government constituted a Statutory Board of Basic Education in 1958. From July 1960 the Post-Graduate Training College (Prantiya Shikshan Mahavidalaya) also adopted the basic pattern.

The position of Basic education in 1961 was that there were 5 Government Senior Basic Schools, one each in Panagar, Bilhari, Patan, Machgaon and Jabalpur in addition to 25 Senior Basic Schools and 46 Junior Basic Schools run by private bodies. There is provision in the Third Five Year Plan for the establishment of a Basic Middle School at every range in the District and conversion of five Primary schools of these ranges into Junior Basic Schools. These schools may have the prescribed syllabus of a complete Basic School in all respects. Scheme for the conversion of many Middle Schools into Senior Basic Schools during the Plan period also deserves special mention.

Secondary Education

By the end of 1945 the secondary education in Jabalpur District gained momentum. The High School Education Board appointed Dr V. S. Jha to overhaul completely the secondary education. The revised syllabus prepared by him was recognised and introduced in 1950. The teachers' allowances were increased. During the next few years many schools sprang up in quick succession. Many Middle schools were upgraded. In 1955 the Government adopted a policy in view of the recommendations of the Secondary Education Commission[1], to convert the High schools into Multipurpose Higher Secondary schools. The Model High School was the first to be converted thus in 1953. At the time of States' Reorganisation there were three Boards of the integrating units, viz., the Mahakoshal Board, Madhya Bharat and Ajmer Board. The new Secondary Education Act was enforced with effect from the 20th April 1959. The Statutory Board of Secondary Education has since been constituted for Madhya Pradesh with 40 members, the Director of Public Instruction being its *ex-officio* Chairman.

As against the 8 High schools in 1947 the District of Jabalpur had 15 High schools in 1951, 29 Higher Secondary schools in 1956 and 58 Higher Secondary schools in 1961.

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1. The Secondary Education Commission was appointed by Government of India in 1953 with Dr A. Laxmana Swami Mudaliar as its chairman. The Commission has since been styled as the Mudaliar Commission.

A tahsil-wise distribution of the Higher Secondary schools in the District in 1960-61 is as under:—

Serial No.	Maintenance	Jabalpur Tahsil	Sihora Tahsil	Katni Tahsil	Patan Tahsil	Total
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)
1	Government Multipurpose Schools.	1	..	..	..	1
2	Government Higher Secondary Schools for Boys.	1	1	2	1	5
3	Government Higher Secondary Schools for Girls.	1	..	..	..	1
4	Private Higher Secondary Schools for Boys.	23	5	4	3	35
5	Private Higher Secondary Schools for Girls.	12	..	-	-	14
6	Un-Recognised Higher Secondary Schools.	1	..	1	.	2
	Total	30	6	9	4	58

After a Primary schooling of five years the students have a Secondary education spreading over 6 years. During this period of 11 years, instruction is being given in basic skills and crafts, five compulsory subjects and three or four optional subjects. The Commission's prescribed curriculum for a Middle school includes (1) language (2) Social Studies (3) General Science (4) Mathmatics (5) Arts and music (6) Craft and (7) Physical Education. And the higher Secondary schools have (A) Language (B) Social Studies (C) One craft and (D) three subjects from the following: (1) Humanities (2) Science (3) Technical (4) Commercial (5) Agricultural (6) Fine Arts and (7) Home Science.

University Education

The origin of Collegiate education in the District can be traced back to 1885 when the old Saugor High School was upgraded and named Jabalpur Government College.

In 188[illegible] sanction was accorded for the completion of the Jabalpur College by an addition of two classes. The people of the seven northern districts of Central Provinces raised a subscription of Rs. 78,910 towards the expense of Jabalpur College. The fee rules of the institution were revised in 1885, the increased fees of Rs. 27 per annum were made payable every term. The new fee rules came into force from 1st June 1885. The High school fees for Rs. 18

per annum were payable in six instalments The strength of students in Jabalpur College rose from 96 in 1894-95 to 108 in 1895-96 In the B. A. examination conducted by the Allahabad University in the year 1895-96, the Jabalpur College stood first amongst all affiliated Colleges. The High School Department of Jabalpur College was closed in 1896. The College was named Robertson College in 1916.

In 1902 the Training Institute at Nagpur was shifted to Jabalpur. This was raised to the status of a Training College in 1911 and was subsequently named the Spence Training College.

The year 1923 was signalised by the establishment of Nagpur University The University Act was brought into operation on the 4th August, 1923. But the degree and post-graduate examinations of 1924 were conducted with the help of Allahabad University, since the new University could not make proper arrangements in this respect.

The 1930's showed better progress in the field of collegiate education in the District The two Colleges viz., the Hitkarini Sabha Law College and the Hitkarini Sabha City College that sprang up during this period were admitted in 1933-34 to the privileges of the Nagpur University for a period of five years. In the Spence Training College an extra subject of History of Education was introduced in 1936 for post-graduate classes Efforts to cultivate a rural bias amongst students of Normal schools also achieved a fair measure of success Students were desired to take up a particular work in a neighbouring village, thus giving them practical lessons in rural uplift The annual tuition fee in the Government and aided Arts Colleges was Rs 102 and in Science College Rs 114 In addition to the above tuition fee the undergraduate science students and M. Sc. students were required to pay Rs. 24 and Rs. 18, respectively, per annum as laboratory fees.

During the period 1942-47 the Collegiate education in Jabalpur gained further momentum. Some of the important events of this period includes the upgrading of Mahakoshal Mahavidyalaya (old Robertson College) to post-graduate status, the introduction of Home Science in the Prantiya Shikshan Mahavidyalaya and the establishment of an Engineering College at Jabalpur.

When Independence dawned in 1947, Jabalpur had only six colleges imparting instruction in Arts, Science, Law and Engineering. The next decade saw the brith of 13 colleges. In 1958-59

Jabalpur became one of the largest centres of university education in India and it could then boast of the privileges of a separate University administering university education in 20 colleges under 10 faculties. Before the formation of Jabalpur University in 1957 the colleges of Jabalpur were affiliated to the Calcutta and Allahabad Universities upto 1923, to the Nagpur University till 1946, and afterwards to the Saugar University.

The Jabalpur University.

It is one of the youngest Indian Universities, having territorial jurisdiction concurrent with the revenue District of Jabalpur. The University started functioning from the 12th June 1957[1]. On Gandhi Jayanti Day, *i.e.*, 2nd October 1957 the University was formally inaugurated by the late Pandit Govind Vallabh Pant.

In 1959 the University Grants Commision approved the scheme for the establishment of six Departments of Post-Graduate Studies and Research in Humanities, and a University Library. The Three-Year Degree Course in Arts, Science, Commerce and Home Science commenced in 1960-61. Post-Graduate degrees of M. D. and M. S. in the Faculty of Medicine and the Degree of M. V. Sc. in the Faculty of Veterinary Science were introduced in 1961.

The University has 10 Faculties, *viz.*, Arts, Science, Commerce, Law, Education, Engineering, Medicine, Veterinary, Agriculture and Home Science. Of the 20 colleges of the District of Jabalpur affiliated to this University 18 are located in the city and one each in Katni and Sihora. The total number of students under instruction in various colleges was 9,341 in 1959-60 as against 7,606 of the previous year. The enrolment number rose to 9,489 in 1960-61 even when the number of colleges decreased by one, consequent on the transfer of Post-graduate Basic Training College to Bilaspur in 1960. The annual returns of total receipts and expenditure were as under.—

		Receipts Rs. nP.	Expenditure Rs. nP.
1957-58 ..	..	6,09,029.23	1,87,973.06
1958-59 ..	..	8,48,572.36	5,00,063.19
1959-60 ..	..	8,78,025.25	7,33,445.15
1960-61*	..	9,40,254.21	14,74,070.62

1 The Jabalpur University Act was brought into force on the 11th March 1957 by a notification in the Madhya Pradesh Gazette.

* (1960-61) The difference was met from the unspent balances in general fund and grants for special purposes received in previous year.

Gandhi Smarak at Tilwaraghat

Shahid Smarak, Jabalpur

The receipt included income for development and the expenditure included expenditure on development.

In 1960 the University Offices were shifted to the Shahid Smarak building from the Veterinary College buildings where they were first housed. A Government plot of 61 acres to the east of Mahakoshal Mahavidyalaya was trasferred to the University. Here the Convocation-*cum*-Administrative building was inaugurated by Pandit Jawaharlal Nehru on 11th July, 1961. The position of the University with its affiliated colleges and their respective strength of students and teachers as it stood in 1961 is tabulated below:—

Serial No.	Name of College	Year of * Establishment	Maintenance/Management	Location	Number of Students			Total Strength of Staff
					Boys	Girls	Total	
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)		(5)	(6)	(7)	(8)
1	Mahakoshal Mahavidyalaya	1836	Governmnet	Jabalpur	1919	143	2,062	124
2	Prantiya Shikshan Mahavidyalaya ..	1889	Do.					
3	Hitkarini Mahavidyalaya	1933	The Hitkarini Sabha Jabalpur	"	213	112	325	53
4	Hitkarini Law College	1933	Do.	"	536	15	551	17
5	C. P. Mahila Mahavidyalaya	1944	The Mahakoshal Shiksha Prasar Samiti Jabalpur.	"	273	..	273	6
				"	..	110	110	14
6	Government Engineering College ..	1947	Government	"	1,103	6	1,109	60
7	Veterinary College —	1948	Do.	"	285	..	285	34
8	Govindram Seksaria College of Commerce and Economics.	1948	The Marwari Shikshan Society	"	1,041	..	1041	21
9	Dalchand Narayandas Jain College ..	1949	The Jain Education Socity	"	881	21	902	26
10	Hawabagh Women's College	1950	The Methodist Church Society in Southern Asia.	"	..	152	152	25
11	St. Aloysius College	1951	The Foundation Society of St. Aloysius College.	"	355	55	410	22
12	Mohanlal Hargovindas College of Home Science for women.	1954	Government	"	—	784	784	53

13	Agriculture College	1955	Do.	"	283	..	283	91
14	Medical College .. — —	1955	Do.	"	280	95	375	54
15	Polytechnic — — —	1955	Do.	"	337	—	337	42
16	The New Education Society Law College	1956	The New Education Society	"	185	1	186	5
17	Institute of Languages and Research ..	1956	Government	"	..	—	—	1
18	Shyam Sunder Agarwal College —	1957	The Satyug Gayanodhya Samiti, Sihora	Sihora	125	9	134	12
19	Tilak Rashtriya Mahavidyalaya —	1958	The Shri Tilak Rashtriya Shiksha Samiti. Katni.	Katni	170	..	170	8
			Total 19 Institutions —		7,986	1,503	9,489	608

Teacher Pupil Ratio—1 : 16

*The year of establishment is given in the chronological order.

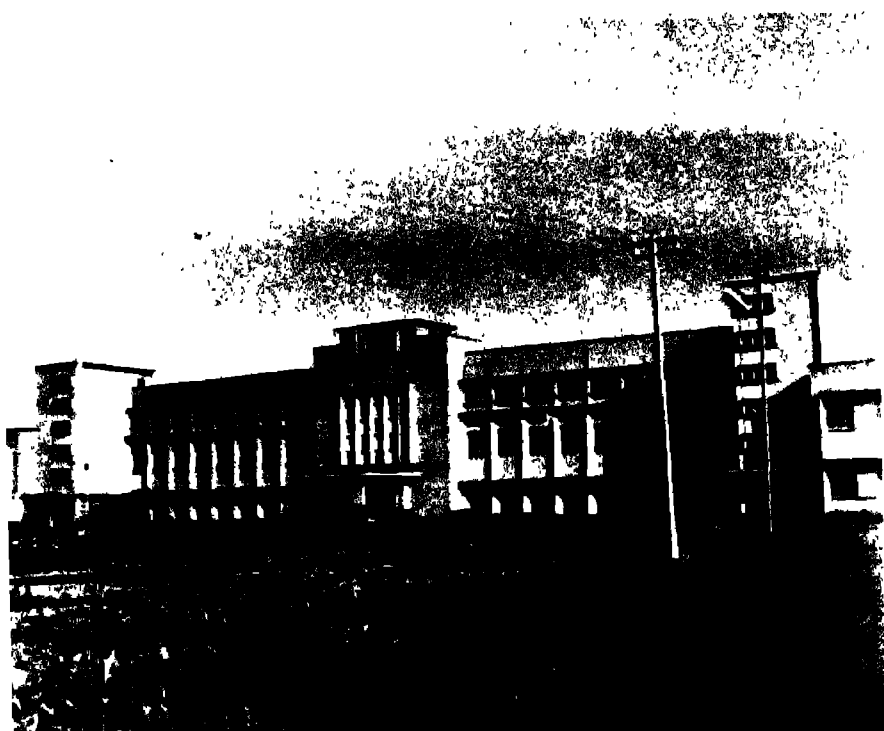
Before we pass on to the next section of this chapter, a word about the oldest institutions of the District. The Mahakoshal Mahavidyalaya, known as the Robertson College until 1946, had its origin in Sagar in 1836 as a High School and was transferred to Jabalpur in 1873, when the Institution taught up to F. A. standard. The college classes were affiliated to the Calcutta University. In 1885 this college was upgraded with degree classes, and after six years the college was affiliated to Allahabad University The Institution is now housed in a new spacious building at Pachpedhi. Before bifurcation into Mahakoshal Mahavidyalaya and Government Science College in 1962 it imparted instruction in nine Arts subjects and six Science subjects.

Leaving aside the professional institutions, the second oldest institution, symbolizing private enterprise and philanthropy, in the District is the Hitkarini Mahavidyalaya. Established in 1933, it was affiliated to the Nagpur University first and to the Saugar University next till 1957. Hitkarini Mahavidyalaya is a Post-graduate College with an enrolment of 551 in 1960-61 as against 63 in 1933-34, the year of its inception.

Yet another University in Jabalpur is the Agricultural University or the Jawaharlal Nehru Krishi Vishwa Vidyalaya

The Jawaharlal Nehru Krishi Vishwa Vidyalaya

In the establishment of the Agricultural University with the assistance of the University of Illinois, U. S. A., the State of Madhya Pradesh met a long felt want of technical know-how in the field of Agricultural research and extension Named after the illustrious son of India, Pandit Jawaharlal Nehru, the Vishwa Vidyalaya was formally inaugurated by Shrimati Indira Gandhi on the auspicious day of 2nd October, 1964 On 1st December, 1964 the Government of Madhya Pradesh transferred to the University the Six Agricultural Colleges of the State at Jabalpur, Raipur, Rewa, Indore, Gwalior and Sehore, and the two Veterinary Colleges at Mhow and Jabalpur together with all Research Centres, with a total strength of 2200 students and 650 teachers A remarkable feature is that each institution is a composite unit in itself having adequate facilities for accommodation, laboratories, libraries, preparation-rooms, research departments, museums, etc.

The Vishwa Vidyalaya has two faculties, *viz*., Faculty of Agriculture and Faculty of Veterinary Science and Animal Husbandry. The courses offered here lead to the degree of B.Sc. and M.Sc. in Agriculture, and B V. Sc. & A. H. and M. V. Sc. in Veterinary Science.

Jawaharlal Nehru Krishi Vishwa Vidyalaya, Jabalpur

Government Home Science College for Women, Jabalpur

The constitution of the University is on the Land Grant Institution pattern of the University of Illinois. Under the U.S.A.I.D. programme books worth 23,825 Dollars and equipments worth 1,15,292 Dollars were made available to the University. In addition, 54 members of the Staff received Post-graduate training under this scheme in U.S.A. Meritorious students with limited financial resources are awarded scholarships, stipends and loans.

The libraries attached to the constituent institutions are equipped with technical books and journals. The library at Mhow maintains a microfilm reader and keeps photostat copies of several rare articles.

The supreme authority of the Vishwa Vidyalaya rests with the Board which has the Vice-Chancellor as its Chairman.

Every institution has hostel facilities and, unless specially exempted, all students are required to reside in the hostel.

TECHNICAL AND PROFESSIONAL EDUCATION

The history of technical education in the District can be traced back to the Carpenter Schools attached to the middle schools of Sihora, Katangi and Bilhari near about 1881[1] and the Reformatory School[2] of still later origin, chiefly designed to teach the juvenile offenders of Central Provinces some handicraft. Instruction to the students of these elementary vocational schools, however, helped adding to the income of schools on selling the products. Thus in 1882-83 the furniture manufactured by the three carpenter schools fetched Rs. 120-11-6. To promote further development in this branch a Carpenter school for masters was attached to the Normal School in Jabalpur. In 1885-86 training in Carpentry was introduced in a few more schools, but not successful. The District Council passed a resolution for the closure of Carpenter schools at Bilhari and Katangi. The latter was, however, reopened. These schools, at any rate, languished as time passed, and instruction in the subject could be revived only in the 19[illegible]0's in Bal Mandirs and still latter in Basic Schools.

The Reformatory School continued to function normally and was transferred to the Education Department in 1900. In 1902-03 the industrial instruction in this school was for the first time systematized by the introduction of standards of Madras System[3]. For

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1. The dates of origin of these schools are not available.
2. The school was opened on the 1st June 1881.
3. The boys were arranged in standards according to their proficiency in the several trades and were examined as for result grants by outside experts.

nearly the first two decades of the present century this was the only Government institution where industrial instruction was given. In 1918 the Department of Industries took over its administration and opened a new branch school of Carpentry. The school later developed into the Robertson Industrial School and continued to be under the Industries Department until 1947 when it was retransferred to the Education Department. During the quinquennium 1927-32 the course of training for carpenters and blacksmiths was revised. For instruction in foundry work natural drought-furnaces were built at Jabalpur. Tailoring classes were also added. The *mochi* class attached to the school was transferred to Amaraoti. The number of juvenile delinquents in this institution was 217 in 1942 and 220 in 1947. Since 1955 it began to enjoy the status of a Government Vocational High School.

In 1895 Engineering classes were attached to the Jabalpur College to train candidates as overseers in the Public Works Department. With opening of an Engineering School at Nagpur in 1914 these classes were abolished.

A Government Engineering College was started in Jabalpur in 1947 which had its affiliation to Saugar University prior to the formation of Jabalpur University. It provides instruction in Civil, Mechanical, Electrical and Tele-Communication Engineering for B. E. degree, and Soil Mechanics and Foundation, Internal Combustion, High Voltage, Radio and U.H. F., V. F. and carreer Telephe, and Advanced Electronic courses for M. E. degree.

Kalaniketan is another industrial school in the District, started in July, 1947. For matriculates it has eight two-year trade courses, *viz.*, Radio Servicing and operation, Boiler and Engines, Internal Combustion Engine, Welding Technology, Electrical Installation, Draughtsmanship, Estimating Civil and Mechanical, and Printing Technology, since 1953. The courses are approved by the Board of Technical Education, Madhya Pradesh. Candidates trained in Crafts and Arts and Workshop Engineering are awarded the High School Learning Technical Certificate which entitles them to admission to a pre-engineering course of one year. This Course was started in 1952 and is affiliated to the Jabalpur University. Of late 30 seats in Applied Arts have been provided in the Institute.

The Government Polytechnic is providing three-year diploma courses in Civil, Mechanical and Electrical Engineering.

The oldest Professional Institutions in the District are the Prantiya Shikshan Mahavidyalaya and the Hitkarini Law* College. The Prantiya Shikshan Mahavidyalaya had its origin at Nagpur in 1889 as a Training Institute and was shifted to Jabalpur in 1902 to become a Training College in 1911 affiliated to the Allahabad University. When R. McGavin Spence, the Principal, retired in 1922 the institution was named after as Spence Training College. Its present name was adopted in 1948. This institution is a big training Centre of teachers, offering B. Ed., M. Ed., and M. A. Psychology courses. Postgraduate course in Psychology was introduced in this institution in 1947.

In 1955 a Bureau of Educational and Vocational Guidance in Psychology started functioning as a separate department. This department was merged with the Psychology department and was raised to the status of a separate institution on 10th September, 1962 called College of Educational Psychology and Guidance. The sanctioned strength of this institution is 30 Candidates possessing a second class Bachelor's degree in any subject are admitted to a two-year course of study at the end of which they are awarded Master's degree in Psychology. The institution is more or less a professional one, for it trains candidates in two branches of study, *viz.*, Educational Psychology and Social Psychology. The Institution is the only one of its kind in the whole of Madhya Pradesh.

The other two professional institutions that deserve a special mention are the Government Medical College and Veterinary College, Jabalpur. Established by the Government of Madhya Pradesh in 1955, the Medical College was first affiliated to Saugar University and then to Jabalpur University in 1957. The institution offers M.B.B.S., M.D., and M.S. Courses. In 1962 it had 500 students on roll. The College has a well equipped library and three hostels, of which one is meant for girl students.

The Madhya Pradesh College of Veterinary Science and Animal Husbandry, Jabalpur was established in 1948. In 1961, post-gradute classes in Bacteriology, Pathology and Nutrition were started in this institution. In 1962-63 there were 291 students on roll. The College also has hostel and library facilities.

SCHOOLS FOR CULTIVATION OF FINE ARTS

The aesthetic education in the District began to prosper only after Independence. Prior to that, except for the introduction of

* In 1889 Law Classes were attached to the Jabalpur College. These classes were abolished at the close of the Session, in September, 1908.

music as an optional subject in the middle classes and distribution of copies of *Sangit Sar*-an exhaustive treatise on Indian music—in Hindi schools in 1908, nothing was done for the development of this branch of education. All the institutions now in the District are run by private bodies or individuals. The Sharda Sangit Vidyalaya is the oldest school of Music established in 1936 and affiliated to the Prayag Sangit Samiti. Three branches of this institution are located in the city at Go Bazar, Jawaharganj and Sadar. The Narsimha Gayan Shala is another institution started in 1940 at the Tripuri Congress Smarak gate with an average attendance of 30 students.

In 1947 the Bhatkhande Sangit Mahavidyalaya was established. This institution is affiliated to the Bhatkhande University of Music, Lucknow and imparts instruction in Indian Classical music—vocal and instrumental. It has an average enrolment of 300 students in the two branches of the institution and gets an annual grant of Rs. 2,000 from the State Government and Rs. 500 from the Jabalpur Corporation.

The Sangeet Kala Niketan is yet another school of instrumental music started functioning under the auspices of the Bengali Club in 1953. The only Government institution that imparts instruction in Music and Dancing in Jabalpur is the M. H. College of Home Science for Women where these are optional subjects. There is good response from the students and those in Music and Dancing classes numbered 67 and 161 respectively, in 1960. The Christ Church Girls school is also having dancing classes.

The only private institution for Dancing is the Jivan Kala Mandal established in 1951 and run by Narsappa Alwa, a noted classical dancer.

ORIENTAL SCHOOLS AND COLLEGES

The advent of western education in the District cannot be said to have adversely affected the development of oriental learning. It continued to enjoy its previous status, of course, with lesser popularity at certain stages. The several vernacular institutions and the introduction of vernacular languages as the media of instruction at Secondary stage bear testimony to this fact.

In 1868 the Hitkarini Sabha established a Sanskrit School, the Hitkarini Sanskrit Pathasala in Jabalpur with very few students. When the Sabha opened its High School the students met for their classes at the High School building. The institution had a smooth working and the number of students rose to 72 in 1910, fifty being high school students and the remaining to become *purohits*. How-

ever, as education in other fields advanced, the institution suffered a set-back. It has now only 12 students on its roll with a teacher. The Gayatri Sanskrit Pathsala is the second oldest Sanskrit institution in the District established in 1929 and located in Marhatal. It has 32 students and 3 teachers with residential accommodation. The Durga Siddha Vidyapith established in 1954 has 44 students including 19 girls. Other seats of Sanskrit learning include the Nagpur Nigam Sanskrit Pathsala (1937) and the Sanskrit Vishwa Parishad Pathsala. The position in 1961 was that there were 11 Sanskrit schools in the District with an enrolment of 340 students and 30 teachers. They all prepared students for the Prathma, Madhyama, Shastri and Acharya examinations in Sanskrit, the coaching being in the traditional way without any deviation. Nearly 200 students take up the Sankrit examinations annually conducted by the Calcutta, Varanasi, Allahabad, and Gorakhpur centres. The annual expenditure on Sanskrit institutions was Rs 25,240 in 1956 and Rs. 36,578 in 1961.

At collegiate level, the Mahakoshal Mahavidyalaya, Jabalpur has Sanskrit as one of its arts subjects upto the post-graduate level. The Institute of Languages and Research, established in 1956, is an important landmark in this field of education. Sanskrit is one of the languages for research. The State Government transferred this institution to the Jabalpur University in April 1960. In 1960-61, the University chalked out a scheme for the development of this institution.

EDUCATION FOR THE HANDICAPPED

A Handicapped Children's Colony was established by the State Social Welfare Department at Jabalpur in July 1958. It had on roll 43 blind and deaf-mute children during the year. Primary edu cation and training in canning, music, bamboo work, etc; was given. A Child Guidance Clinic was also started at Jabalpur in August 1958. But it was discontinued in 1960-61 due to administr-tive difficulties. A sum of Rs. 38,000 was spent on the Clinic and Colony during 1958-59.

ADULT LITERACY AND SOCIAL EDUCATION

The history of adult literacy in this District can be traced back to the late nineteenth century when a night class was opened by Government at Jabalpur in 1881 to combat illiteracy among the masses. The opening of several other night-classes followed These night-classes, though occasionally interrupted by adversities, continued to function. The night-classes were, however, closed down in 1940 due to lack of sufficient attendance.

The Missionary Societies which were responsible for pioneering educational activities in the District were the other agencies to sponsor adult education. The Church of England Zenana Mission (CEZ) started several home classes for adult women in the Jabalpur town during this period. Here they taught women to read and write, in addition to elementary arithmetic and needle work. The first quarter of the present century showed adequate progress and in 1924 the adult women under instruction numbered 264. The Inspectress of Schools remarked that "this work, while not of a very high standard in itself, is of value in spreading the idea of education and in encouraging the ladies to send their children to schools".

During the course of next two decades the work of the Mission attained tangible progress. In 1929 the C. E. Z. Mission was the only recognised institution in Jabalpur. From 1945-46 the Mission has been getting an annual grant of Rs 1,200 for its home classes

In 1925 adult classes were also started in the Spence Training College as an experimental measure. This was closed down later.

Another institution opened in 1931-32 was the Jail school attached to the Central Jail, Jabalpur, for educating adult women convicts. This school was closed in 1936

But, as time passed, the aim of adult education had undergone a change. The modern society needed not mere adult education but social education that enabled an adult to have a productive civic life. This necessitated an organized working through social literature and audio-visual aids. The Social Welfare Department of Madhya Pradesh undertook this work During the First Five Year Plan the department instituted 114 Adult Literacy Centres, 85 reading-rooms and village libraries, in addition to organizing as many as 150 units of peoples' organisation including Mahila Mandals in Jabalpur District. Four-thousand-two-hundred and eighty-four adults were made literates in 1956 as against 989 of 1951. At the close of Second Plan there were 280 adult literacy centres and 232 reading-rooms in Jabalpur. The number of peoples' organisations rose to 926 in 1956. Teachers were specially trained for the literacy centres In 1961 there were 139 trained teachers in the District. During the first two years of the Third Plan, 77 adult literacy centres were opened anew and 838 adults were made literates. The literacy centres arrange film shows and adult classes. The village libraries supply adequate easy-to-read literature. The Mahila Mandals preach to the village women-folk the ways and means to be clean and healthy.

The overall charge of the working of this scheme in the District is with the District Welfare Officer. The Gram Sewaks and Gram Sewikas and officials of the Panchayats are also responsible for its working. The Samaj Shikshan Samiti of Jabalpur has done splendid service in this field. It has its own fund and from 1949-50 it has been giving an additional allowance of Rs. 5 to the social education teachers.

CULTURAL, LITERARY AND SCIENTIFIC SOCIETIES

The oldest of these societies in the District is the Hindi Sahitya Sangh. This was established in 1930. The aim of this literary association is to publish the works of great poets and writers and to arrange social gatherings to commemorate the intellectual celebrities who shine ever-bright in the literary firmament of our country. It has to its credit the publication of two valuable collections of poems, one of the late Pandit Keshav Prasad Pathak, the well-known poet and translator of Omar Khayyam's *Rubaiyyat*, and the other of late Indra Bahadur Khare who died a premature death. The Sanskrit Sangh, established in 1940, runs a library called Gandhi Pustakalaya, well equipped with Hindi, English and Sanskrit literature. Group discussions and debates on topics relating to art and literature are being held at its monthly meetings. The Jain Samaj runs the Mahabir Pustakalaya at Jawahar-ganj with similar activities. The Jabalpur Cultural Educational and literary Association, the Swadhyaya Samiti (Sadar Bazar), Gandhi Vichar Parishad (Wright Town) the Samaj Shiksha Samiti (Ghamapur) the Bengali Sahitya Samiti (Muhatal), the Guru Nanak Saheb Sabha, the South Indian Association, and the Sindhi Association (Omti) are the other literary and cultural societies which have multifarious activities to promote the cultural talent of the public. The Gandhi Vichar Parishad mainly aims at the propogation of Gandhian ideals and literature. It is patronized by the Bapu Bal Samaj of Wright Town. The various cultural associations representing different lingustic divisions of the country pool together their cultural heritage and pave the way to emotional integration. There are no scientific societies except in the Government Science and Engineering Colleges.

CULTURAL, LITERARY AND SCIENTIFIC PERIODICALS

The earliest literary periodical in Jabalpur was the *Shiksha Prakash* which started publishing in 1910. After one year this monthly magazine was named *Hitkarini*, edited by late Rai Saheb Raghubar Prasad Dwivedi for about 10 years. Almost all Hindi schools were subscribers of this magazine. It is now being published as an annual number. *Sharda Vinod* was another monthly started in 1915, but its publication ceased after 17 months. It, however,

reappeared in 1920 under the title of *Shri Sharda* only to have a short life of another three years. This was managed by the Rashtriya Hindi Mandir and edited by late Narmada Prasad Mishra.

In 1920 the late Matadin Shukla began to edit a fortnightly called *Chhatra Sahodar*, chiefly designed for the student community. *Prema* was yet another literary monthly magazine started by Ramanujlal Shrivastava in 1931, but stopped in 1933. The monthly magazines *Yugarambha* and *Samta* started after 1947 also were of ephemeral nature. Now there are two monthlies *Chanda* and *Vasudha*, the first being a children's Magazine. A Sindhi literary and cultural quarterly called *Nai Zindgi* was started in 1956 at Jabalpur.

Many literary and scientific journals and bulletins are now being published by the different societies and associations functioning in the colleges

LIBRARIES AND MUSEUMS

Out of 66 libraries in the District, 9 public libraries are located in the Jabalpur town itself. Of these the following deserve special mention:

Municipal District Library.

Established in 1885 by the then Deputy Commissioner C.W. Memunn, it is under the control of Jabalpur Municipal Committee since 1922 The library is well equipped with books of both Hindi and English literature and runs with an annual expenditure of Rs. 15,000. Periodicals numbering 2[illegible] are also made available to the readers.

Maharashtra Vachanalaya.

It was started by a private body in 1895 and during the next five years it acquired 250 books and 35 subscribing members A period of uneasy lull followed. The working of the library was, however, revived in 1918. It has now in its possesion 7,000 books in English and Marathi literature, in addition to a regular supply of 24 periodicals The silver jubilee of the library was calebrated in 1939 and Loknayak M. S Aney presided over the function

Babu Govind Das established another library called Sharda Bhawan in 1914 In 1921 it had 8,345 books and 40 periodicals for the readers But it had a stunted growth thereafter and is now defunct In 1924 the Bazme Adab Society established a library in its name. It has a strength of 8,000 Urdu books. The liberal donations made by P. C Bose and others gave birth to the Sindhi Bala Basu Library in 1928. It has now about 5,000 books of

Bengali literature. The Mahavir Jain Library had only two almirahs of books to start with in 1936 In 1943 Smt. Ganeshi Bai made a donation to the tune of Rs. 7,000. The library has 6,000 books now. The Mohanlal Hargovind Gujrati Library (1937) having 2,700 books received an annual grant of Rs. 200 from the Corporation. Other libraries include the Lalchand Agarwal Public Library and the Arya Samaj Library.

In addition to these, there are three State-owned libraries, viz., the Central Library, the District Library and the Integrated Library. The second and third are attached to the offices of the Divisional Superintendent of Education, Jabalpur and the District Education Officer, Jabalpur, respectively. The Central Library was established in 1955, and is now housed in a building in Bhanwar Tal Park. It is administered by a Chief Librarian who is a class I gazetted officer. There is a Library Committee to advise him in the selection and purchase of books

There are no museums in the district except the District Archaeological Museum or Jila Puratatva Sangrahalaya where the archaeological finds recently collected by the Hiralal Puratatva Samiti are preserved.

MEN OF LETTERS

We have already seen how Jabalpur has developed into a great centre of learning in modern times It can boast of a host of litterateurs whose contribution had enriched modern India's art and literature Their writings make us feel the pulsations of an advancing human society.

The senior-most modern Hindi poet and scholar of the District was Thakur Jagmohan Singh. A prose-writer, he composed miscellaneous poems also. Rai Bahadur Dr. Hira Lal was a great Orientalist. He was the father of Hindi Gazetteers. His invaluable assistance in the preparation of the District Gazetteers in the early decades of the century has been gratefully appreciated by Nelson and Russell. Ganga Prasad Agnihotri wrote unceasingly on cow-protection and agriculture. Raghubar Prasad Dwivedi was a poineer of modern Hindi in Central Provinces an educationist, historian, essayist and editor. His *Sadachar Darpan* is a fine book on ethics. Kamta Prasad Guru was a great grammarian, editor, poet, dramatist and essayist. Narmada Prasad Mishra was joint-editor of the *Hitkarini*, a magazine started by Raghubar Prasad Dwivedi, a publisher of repute and writer of juvenile literature.

There existed a house of Pathaks known for scholarship and literary writing. Laxmi Kant Pathak was an authority on astronomy and astrology and a writer. His eldest son, Shyam Kant Pathak, wrote an epic and a play. The youngest son, Keshava Prasad Pathak, a poet, was the distinguished translator of *Omar Khayyam*.

The Chouhans, Laxman Singh and Shrimati Subhadra Kumari, are among the brighest litterateurs of Jabalpur The husband, though overshadowed by the fame of his wife, wrote *Utsarg*, *Soubhaya Ladla Napoleon*, *etc*. Subhdra Kumari, immortalised as the author of the great poem on Maharani Laxmi Bai of Jhansi, remains as one of the leading Hindi poetesses of modern India.

Matadin Shukla was not only a talented poet and a successful editor of several magazines but also a source of inspriration to the rising generation. Mangal Prasad Vishwakarma was a po t and the editor of *Shubh Chintak*. Ganga Vishnu Pandeya was a Sanskrit scholar and a poet Indra Bahadur Khare, who died prematurely, was a promising poet and a writer. Narsingh Das Agrawal was a respected figure in the political social and literary life of the District. Madhav Rao Sapre and Rai Devi Prasad ' Purna' too were closely associated with the District at some time or the other.

The literary activities of the District have indeed been rich In addition to a few celebrities dealt with above there are a number of contemporary men of letters, out of whom only a few at the best can be mentioned here

Lok Nath Shastri is known for his devoted scholarship of oriental literature and philosophy. Many biographies and travelogues have emanated from the pen of Seth Govind Das who is also credited with the authorship of 101 dramas. Dwarka Prasad Mishra is a scholar of Hindi Literature and the author of the epic poem *Krishnayan*. Lajja Shankar Jha is an educationist and a writer. Mahadeva Prasad 'Sami' is a celebrated Urdu and Persian Scholar Shaligram Dwivedi is a popular writer of juvenile literature. Ram Chandra Sanghi is a journalist, translator and writer of juvenile literature Ramanuj Lal Shrivastava is a poet of Urdu and Hindi, a discerning critic, short-story writer and humourist. Beohar Rajendra Singh is a writer, critic and research worker D vi Daval Chaturvedi 'Mast' is a short-story writer and poet. Bhavani Prasad Tiwari is a poet . Rameshwar Shukla 'Anchal' is a poet, critic and essayist. Narmada Prasad Khare is a poet and a writer. Hari Shankar Parsai is a satirical writer. Rameshwar Guru and

Rajeshwar Guru, the son of illustrious Kamta Prasad Guru, are poets, playwrights and critics. Shrimati Usha Devi Mitra is a novelist and short-story writer.

Jabalpur owes much also to those whose mother-tongue is not Hindi. Vinayak Rao's *magnum opus* was his *Vinayaki Tika* of the *Manas*. Sukumar Chatterji ushered *Chhatra Sahodar*, a monthly magazine in Hindi. Rai Bahadur P. C. Bose, C.I.E., one of the noblest sons of Jabalpur, authored a book in Hindi *M. P. Men Shikar*. Manohar Pant Golwalkar was an inveterate pioneer of all literary causes and wrote freely in Hindi. Gopal Damodar Tamaskar, besides being an authority on Geography, on which he wrote Hindi text-books, has left several literary Hindi books to commemorate his services to the National Language. Ram Chandra Raghunath Sarwate is a well-known translator of Marathi books.

In this connection one cannot forget the services of Christian Missionaries who were great educationists. Basu, Bahadurji and Modak were the proud possessions of the District. Nor can Jabalpur forget the great philanthropists who, by their munificence, helped the cause of education and literature. Raja Gokul Das, Rai Bahadur Bihari Lal Khajanchi, Sawai Singhai Bhola Nath Ratan Chand, Seth Mohan Lal Hargovind, Rai Bahadur Vishnu Dutt Shukla, Rai Saheb Govind Lal Purohit and Geo O. Forrester are the unforgettable personalities of the District.

CHAPTER XVI

MEDICAL AND PUBLIC HEALTH SERVICES

The system of medicine known and practised in this country from ancient times is Ayurved. It is particularly suited to the conditions of the populace in the country because of the cheapness of medicines and their easy applicability. The medicines which are usually prepared out of medicinal plants and herbs locally available, and from different minerals, have proved efficacy in curing diseases. For common ailments, household remedies are suggested under the system which makes it all the more popular. That is why even today, when the Allopathic system of medicine is widely in vogue, the practioners of *Ayurvedic* system of medicine, *i.e.*, *Vaidyas*, are found practically in all the villages and towns in the country. It is, therefore, expected that in olden times, as elsewhere in the country, the system of *Ayurvedic* medicine was the only system prevalent in the District. Later, with the contacts of Muslims the *Unani* system of medicine also became popular. But the practice of *Hakims* remained confined mostly to towns, and in rural areas the *Ayurvedic* practitioners, *i.e.*, *Vaidyas* were the only health-givers.

The beginning of Allopathic system of treatment in Jabalpur District might be traced back to the times when the District came under British Supremacy in 1818 In other words, military occupation of the area ushered in an era of the Allopathic system of the medicine in the District as elsewhere in the country.

The construction of the present building of the Military Hospital in 1861, with the prior establishment of its certain units, was a mile-stone in this direction. Long after this, in the year 1905, infectious diseases ward was added. Alongwith military establishments the cantonment areas were formed. Before the Cantonment Hospital was brought into existence near about 1924, these facilities might have been available under 'The Followers Hospital'. In the year 1905, the Gun-Carriage Factory was built at Jabalpur and with it a dispensary inside the precincts and a hospital known as Satpura Hospital was started. On the civil side, the slab on Victoria Hospital, depicting it as 'City Main Hospital 1876', indicates the existence of medical facilities for civil population. It is reported

in the Jubbulpore District Gazetteer (1909) that the District had seven dispensaries maintained from dispensary funds, three of which, *viz.*, the Victoria Hospital, the City and the Civil Dispensary were located at Jabalpur, while the others were situated at Sihora, Murwara, Patan and Bijairaghogarh. There were also Police, Jail and Cantonment hospitals at Jabalpur and a dispensary maintained by the Church of England Zenana Mission at Panagar. The Victoria Hospital had accommodation for 64 in-patients; the institutions at Sihora, Murwara and Patan were equipped for 6, 10 and 6 in-patients, respectively. The Police Hospital had 24 beds. The average daily number of indoor patients treated at the dispensaries during the decade ending 1901 was 82, and that of outdoor patients 682. The average yearly income of all dispensaries was Rs. 15,651, of which Rs. 4,566 were contributed by Government, Rs. 9,025 by Local Bodies and Rs. 1,915 by subscription. There was also the Elgin Hospital for women, one of the institutions under the management of the Countess of Dufferin's Fund, in charge of a Lady Doctor. The Hospital had accommodation for 18 indoor patients.

The general supervision of the dispensaries rested with the Civil Surgeon of the District. The management of the dispensaries outside municipal areas was entrusted to the District Council in case of dispensaries maintained from dispensary funds. The income of the District Council being quite meagre, very little was spent on medical charges. In the beginning there was a great deal of antipathy on the part of the people to take to the modern system of Allopathic treatment and it was difficult to give an injection or to perform an operation. But that phase has gone now. People have become hospital-minded.

Epidemics were fewer in the past, but unfortunately their incidence, if a virulent epidemic broke out, was severe owing to the fact that the administration did not have sufficient personnel to be sent promptly to the affected areas. It also took a longer time to reach the medicines to the country side. Epidemic of cholera occurred in 1889, 1891, 1896, 1897, 1900, 1906 and 1918. For the first time, severe epidemic of plague broke out in December 1902, and subsequent years 1903-04, 1905-06 and 1917 to 1920 also saw many people dying on account of this epidemic. Small-pox also took a heavy toll of human lives in the years 1888, 1894, and 1895. Vaccination greatly mitigated the ravages of small-pox.

The Public Health Administration in the District rested with the Civil Surgeon who was also the District Health Officer. In his latter capacity, he was an adviser to the Local Bodies on matters of

sanitation and public health. The conditions in respect of sanitation and public health generally were not satisfactory. It was only the municipal towns of Jabalpur, Sihora and Murwara where conservancy and cleanliness was fairly looked after by the municipal committees. The Village Sanitation Act, 1889 was made applicable to a certain number of villages in the District including Patan and Panagar as early as 1893, but beyond an official notification in this regard nothing was done to implement the Act till 1901-1902. By 1909 the Act remained applicable to only Patan and Panagar villages. The Sanitation Committees of these villages depended for their funds on voluntary registration of cattle sales, weighmen's fees and dues levied on bazar stalls. The receipts of Patan and Panagar committees in 1906-07 stood at Rs. 732 and Rs. 2965, respectively. The income of these committees was such smaller to meet adequately the requirements of the growing townships.

Vaccination was compulsory only in the limits of the Jabalpur Municipality and Cantonment and in the tahsil towns of Sihora and Murwara. In villages, vaccination, though optional, was reported to be carried out every year. The vaccination staff in 1908-09 consisted of a Superintendent, 16 Vaccinators and an apprentice Vaccinator. The hospital assistants at the outlying dispensaries also vaccinated children in the town or village in which their dispensaries were situated In the year 1908-09, it was reported that approximately 20 per cent of the population was protected. The cost of vaccination in 1906-07 was Rs. 0-1-10 per child successfully vaccinated. Revaccination was not compulsory even in those areas in which child vaccination was insisted upon.

VITAL STATISTICS

The system of registering births and deaths, which is now in vogue though not wholly scientific, was introduced in some parts of Jabalpur District during the year 1864-65. The agency employed for the purpose of this registration was in the larger towns, the municipal police and in selected rural tracts the district police and patwaris (village accountants); that is to say, registration had not been attempted for the Central Provinces as a whole, but for parts and sub-divisions all over the country, and where it was ordinarily practicable. In the year 1870, the new form of register issued by the Government of India was brought into use and the registration of births and deaths was extended to all parts of the province with the exception of a small number of villages in the more remote and inaccessible areas.[1] The Agency employed was, the Kotwars or village messengers who presented themselves periodically at the

1. C. P. Administration Report, 1869-70, p. 90.

police station of the circle to which the village belongs and reported all the births and deaths that occurred since their last report was made. The registration has since been extended throughout the District. General opinion expressed in annual sanitary reports, annual public health reports and Government resolutions upon the registration of vital statistics, was that the system was imperfect. In rural areas, the registration of births and deaths has been fairly accurate as to totals, but the classification of deaths under different diseases has been not only unreliable, but misleading. There has been awareness of the unsatisfactory manner in which the work was carried on, but with the agencies available like that of village Kotwars, accurate diagnosis could not be attained as they were mostly illiterate. Secondly, in urban areas, for one reason or the other all births have not been entered This factor has resulted in magnifying the death-rate figures in the District.

The Director of Public Health continues to be the State Officer for compilation of vital statistics, while the Civil Surgeon as District Officer does this work at the district level.

General Standard of Health as reflected by Statistics.—The population of this District has been enumerated on 13 occasions, i.e., in 1825-27. 1854-58, 1866. 1872, 1881, 1891, 1901. 1911, 1921, 1931, 1941, 1951 and 1961. The first Census was taken during the operations of the Second quinquennial Settlement between 1825 and 1827, when a population of 4,67 627 persons was returned. The next Census was taken 30 years later of during 1854 to 1858, resulting in an enumeration of 4,80,504 persons. A. M. Russell who carried out the settlement operations, reviewing these figures stated that the population of the District had increased considerably during the 30 years between 1825 and 1855 and that it had been steadily increasing. Thus, in the Census year 1866, the District population was 6,20,201, showing an increase of 29 per cent on that of 1854-58. The famine of 1869, which was more severe in Murwara tahsil than elsewhere in the province, reduced the population in 1872 to 5,28,859 persons, a decrease of 14.7 per cent on 1866

Another decrease of population was noticed in 1901, the population being 6,80,585 having decreased by nine per cent, since 1891. "The decrease was due to the cycle of bad years that intervened between the two enumerations, culminating in the two famines of 1897 and 1900. The number of deaths exceeded that of births in 1891, and in every year between 1894 and 1898. In 1896 and 1897 number of deaths was respectively two and three times that of births, the

Murwara tahsil in 1897 returning 5 deaths for every birth. The decrease of population was higest in the Sihora tahsil with a percentage of 12.5 and lowest in the Murwara tahsil with 7.2 per cent, the Jubbulpore tahsil showing a decrease of 8.1 per cent."[1] Since then the population of the District is on the increase except for the decade 1921 when the growth rate registered a fall by 0.03 per cent. Even the latest Census of 1961 reveals an increase of 2,28,229 persons over the Census of 1951. This increase in population may be attributed to the low death-rate over births in the absence of famines and epidemics like plague, cholera, etc., which took heavy toll of life in previous decades. The following table shows the decennial growth of population from 1901 to 1961:—[2]

Decades	Population	Mean Decennial growth rate
1901	6,79,859	..
1911	7,45,022	+9.15
1921	7,44,783	—0.03
1931	7,72,608	+3.67
1941	9,09,245	+16.25
1951	10,45,596	+13.95
1961	12,73,825	+19.68

"Between 1881, and 1891 the birth-rate averaged 41 per mille and was ninth in the Privince, and the death-rate was 35.4 per mille or the 5th highest. During the decade ending 1901 the birth-rate was 34.3 or about the same as for the British Districts as a whole, but the death-rate was 40.9 per mille, the high rate being due to the prevalence of scarcity and famine. The excess of deaths over births was common to most of the Districts of the Province. During the six years 1901-06 plauge and cholera have retarded the natural growth of population, the excess of births over deaths during this period amounting to

1. Jabalpur District Gazetteer, p. 78
2. Pocket Compendium, Jabalpur District.

only 35,129 persons."[1] The following table shows births and deaths together with birth and death rates per mille of population:—

Years	Births	Birth rate per mille	Deaths	Death rate per mile
1927-28	33,854	45.40	25,788	33.05
1947-48	29,097	36.97	25,114	33.42
1952-53	33,985	31.39	23,827	22.40
1958-59	38,753	33.88	23,384	20.44
1959-60	42,221	36.48	18,582	16.06
1960-61	32,663	25.5	13,811	11.76
1961.62	25,364	19.90	9,577	6.65

The birth-rate shows an erratic trend, but the death-rate is definitely decreasing.

Causes of Mortality.—During the decade 1901 to 1910 important causes of mortality were cholera, plague and fevers. For the first time in 1902-1903 plague occurred in the District taking a heavy toll of human lives. A marked fall in mortality from plague was a satisfactory feature from 1931 onwards. and cholera too had been less virulent since 1931 onwards. In the last decade, deaths from fevers (fevers include malarial fevers) have been high. Deaths from tuberculosis (including respiratory diseases) have also been on the increase in recent years. The higest number of deaths from respiratory diseases was registered between 1947 to 1951 and 1954. Deaths from small-pox and diarrhoea and dysentery has been on decrease, since 1947 onwards The following table gives important causes of mortality from 1947 to 1960.

Year	Cholera	Small pox	Plague	Fevers	Dysentery	Diarrhoea	Respiratory diseases including T. B.	Other diseases
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)	(8)	(9)
1947 ..	296	2,241	141	9,368	2,917	612	6,001	3,538
1948 ..	317	1,742	109	9,299	2,884	541	6,378	3,006
1949 ..	281	1,943	130	8,867	2,801	299	6,233	4,365
1950 ..	318	2,118	97	7,991	2,788	305	6,152	4,964
1951 ..	112	1,178	112	9,280	2,712	812	6,078	3,828
1952 ..	219	1,852	73	9,091	2,678	318	5,677	3,919
1953 ..	287	1,329	38	8,918	2,461	216	4,993	5,457
1954 ..	181	1,742	21	8,729	1,994	115	6,142	5,218
1955 ..	112	1,231	..	8,519	2,611	328	5,717	4,700
1956 ..	47	1,941	..	7,497	2,009	211	5,278	628
1957 ..	39	1,749	..	8,141	2,112	109	4,978	4,098
1958 ..	..	1,567	..	6,753	3,939	..	4,494	6,497
1959 ..	..	635	..	8,516	811	37	5,114	3,439
1960 ..	..	437	..	6,569	667	38	3,166	2,934
1961 ..	100	9	..	330	863	..	25	..

1. Jubbulpore District Gazetteer, p. 79.

Infant Mortality—An idea of the disquieting feature of heavy infant mortality sweeping Jabalpur District can be had from the figures given below.

Years	Infant deaths
1950	8,098
1951	7,632
1952	8,200
1953	7,831
1954	8,017
1955	7,239
1956	6,912
1957	6,597
1958	6,027
1959	3,439
1960	3,439
1961	1,019

It may be seen from the above figures that from 1950 to 1958 the infant deaths in the District remained pretty high and it is only from 1958 that a downward trend is discernible.

DISEASES COMMON TO THE DISTRICT

In general the District is healthy in most part of the year. "The climate for the most part of the year is pleasant and salubrious and Jubbulpore is generally looked upon as one of the most desirable stations in the Province."[1] However, the following diseases are found to be common in the District and are described below in detail:

Cholera—Epidemics of cholera were comparatively infrequent in the District during the second half of the last century. Severe epidemics ravaged the country during the years 1889, 1891, 1896, 1897 and 1900, the three last mentioned years being of disastrous famine, in whose train cholera stalked. "In the three latter epidemics the mortality was 6·01, 3·30 and 3.11 per mille respectively."[2]

1. *Ibid*, p. 35.
2. *Ibid*, p. 80.

In the beginning of 20th century, it broke out in the District in a virulent form in 1906 and was responsible for 3374 deaths.

During the second decade it appeared in 1918 and 1921 resulting in 5751 and 4715 deaths. respectively. The major cholera epidemics after 1930 occurred in the District in the years 1939, 1941, 1945, 1947, 1949, 1952, 1953 and 1957. There was a severe outbreak of the epidemic in Katni and Jabalpur tahsils of the District in the year 1961. But on account of early action it was controlled without causing much damage. Cholera generally breaks out in the months of May to October and becomes severe in the month of June. The lack of pure, wholesome water, unhealthy food.flies and unhygienic habits are the usual causes.

Anti-cholera Measures.—To combat the disease all possible measures were taken. The known household remedy for treatment of cholera in the initial stages is a mixture of onion juice with *podina* and black papper. Externally, ginger and mustard are rubbed over the body. No food is given. and water, too only in restricted quantities. Anti-cholera vaccine is generally used by the Medical and Public Health authorities in the treatment of cases of cholera. Inoculations for cholera became popular in the District from the second decade of the current century and from 1940 onwards came to stay as a regular feature of the precautionary measures. Special cholera regulations are enforced in all the infected areas in addition to the other normal measures. Besides this Cholera Campaign Week, for mass inoculation is organised in the District. This consists of vigorous anti-cholera inoculation campaign in all road-side and river-side villages and in such villages which had cholera history. The incidence of cholera is checked by these measures.

Small-pox.—From the earlier history of small-pox in the District it has been found that in three out of the 20 years 1886-1905, slightly over a hundred deaths occurred. In three years, i.e., 1888, 1894 and 1895 the incidence was more severe. resulting in 305, 309 and 1070 deaths, respectively, the ratio for the last mentioned year being 1.43 per mille. In recent years (1947 onward) this epidemic appears to have taken heavy toll of life. From 1959, it is, however,

on the decline. The table below gives the number of deaths registered from small-pox:—

Year		No. of deaths
1947	..	2,241
1948	..	1,742
1949	..	1,943
1950	..	2,118
1951	..	1,178
1952		1,852
1953		1,329
1954	..	1,742
1955	..	1,231
1956	..	1,941
1957	..	1·749
1958	..	1,567
1959	..	695
1960	..	437
1961	..	9

Vaccination.—It is reported in the Administration Report of the Central Provinces for the year 1862 that "Vaccination generally has not been successful in these Provinces. partly owing to the prejudices of the people and partly, no doubt, to defects in the operation itself".

In earlier times this disease was being looked upon as a visitation of Devi by practically all the believers in Gods and Goddesses, and the District was no exception As a result of this belief no medical measures were adopted to combat it. Some sort of ritual for appeasing the Goddess, like spreading of *neem* leaves on the floor, festooning them to the roof and over the doors. application of turmeric, *neem* leaves, oil or butter to the body of the patient, singing of songs in praise of the Goddess and entreating Her to spare the patient, etc.. was followed. Food was not restricted. Rice, sago, *dal,* milk and vegetables were given, but salt, flesh. oil and condiments were prohibited. Even now in the rural areas the village-folk are found observing all these rites and rituals.

In 1866 a Superintendent of Vaccination for the province was appointed, his field of operation being certain localities which could actually be supervised by an European Medical Officer. In September 1867, instructions were circulated by the Government to enlist the co-operation of the municipalities in the cause of vaccination. Cases of opposition were also reported, but in the absence of legislation to deal with such cases nothing could be done in the past except to give a few words of advice. A Bill to amend the Vaccination Act of 1880 was passed into law in 1931, so as to make it applicable to the rural areas. It was hoped that the District Councils would take advantage of this law and make vaccination compulsory in a large number of selected areas under their jurisdiction. Vaccination weeks were also organised in the District for many years. Vaccination and revaccination work was carried out by the health staff of the Government and Local Bodies to stamp out the disease. The following table shows the vaccination work done in recent years: —

Year	Primary vaccination	Re-vaccination
1951-52	2,225	16,637
1957-58	N.A.	N.A.
1958-59	21,743	19,992
1959-60	17,709	17,099
1960-61	18,360	15,917
1961-62	29,122	23,342

Plague.—Plague is a highly infectious disease with a high mortality rate. For the first time in December 1902, plague broke out in the District and continued till April 1903, affecting the three large towns of Jabalpur, Murwara and Panagar with 108 smaller villages and towns and causing 7,360 deaths. It appeared again in September 1903 and continued until May of the succeeding year. The next epidemic occurred in August 1904 and did not cease until May 1905. The fourth invasion of this disease commenced in September 1905 and lasted till April 1906. This epidemic was less extensive and less virulent than the preceding ones. Since the commencement of the first outbreak in December 1902 until the end of the last in April 1906, the total mortality from plague had been 14,333. Again in the years 1910, 1917, 1918, 1919 and 1920, it broke out in a virulent form in the District. Between 1921 and 1930 the disease did not lose its virulence. It has been stated in

the Annual Public Health Report for the year 1921 that "The town of Jubbulpore seldom escapes from plague and for the past twelve years has shown an average yearly mortality of close on 1000......". Jabalpur was considered a source of danger not only to its inhabitants but to the adjoining cantonment and also to the neighbouring districts of Narsimhapur, Damoh. Sagar, Seoni, Mandla, etc Again, the incidence of the disease was high in 1949 and 1950. In mild form it was prevalent in the District up to 1954 and has disappeared from the District since 1955. The table below shows the annual incidence of plague in the District from 1949 to 1956.

Year	Seizure	Deaths
1949	8,499	1,741
1950	5,023	1,348
1951	1,173	357
1952	425	34
1953	354	66
1954	39	17
1955	Nil	Nil
1956	Nil	Nil

Anti-Plague Measures—Whenever plague occurred in the District, suitable preventive measures such as. inoculation, evacuation, isolation, disinfection and rat-destruction work were carried out. An organised rat-destruction campaign is carried out year by year in the city of Jabalpur. Cynogassing of rat-burrows in houses is adopted, besides strawburning as an anti-flea measure.

After the State Government had established, a combined plague and malaria control Unit in 1950 at Patan. the disease showed a downward trend. Since 1955 plague has completely disappeared, and this may be attributed in no small measure to the use of modern insecticides like D. D. T., etc.

Malaria.—Malaria is a serious health problem. It is a highly infectious fever caused by a human malarial parasite. Much of sickness and mortality was caused by malarial fevers and no part of the District was free from them. The seasonal prevalence was, as a rule, from the end of August to the later part of November. The average annual mortality from fevers during the period 1886-1895

was 18.73 per mille, while during 1886-1905 it was 20.84 per mille. Here it could safely be said that 'Fevers' as entered by the ignorant villagers included many diseases other than malarial fevers, but malaria was a dangerous fever which caused heavy mortality. The number of deaths exclusively from this disease in recent years is given below.

Year			Deaths
1947	..	..	16,616
1949	..	..	14,729
1951	..	..	13,272
1952	..	..	11,979

Anti-Malaria Measures—To check the disease, quinine tablets were sold to the public at a nominal cost at medical institutions and through the agency of Local Bodies. Although quinine was supplied to vendors at reduced rates and sold to consumers at less than cost price it was still far too expensive for the poorer masses. The use of this drug was unpopular with those who were living in interior forest region and they were the people mostly exposed to infection. By 1939, the distribution of quinine had become almost free. A system was being initiated under which every important village had to be provided with a quinine vendor. Most of the rural School teachers came forward to undertake this work.

In recent years, however, the Government have done much to control and eradicate this disease. Free distribution of resorcinol and other anti-Malaria drugs continues. During 1950, a Malaria Control Unit was established at Patan.

In the wake of the National Malaria Control Programme launched by the Government of India, the Malaria Unit at Patan was converted into a full-fledged Anti-Malaria Unit in 1955. Ever since, the unit has expanded its field of operation and by 1958-59, the unit helped to protect a population of 3,70,046 persons in 1201 villages. The results achieved so far (given in Table below) indicate a considerable decline of malaria parasites in human system: —

Year.	Cumulative spleen indices (per cent)	Cumulative parasite indices (per cent)	Cumulative infant parasite indices (per cent)
1954-55	0.986	02.72	01.60
1955-56	07.36	..	01.45
1956-57	03.98	03.53	02.08
1957-58	02.89	04.12	02.11
1958-59	01.34	02.04	00.26
1959-60	20.9	0.4	Zero
1960-61	21.91	0.11	0.3
1961-62	Zero	0.22	Zero

The Government was encouraged by the results of the National Malaria Control Programme and have now converted the control programme into one of National Malaria Eradication Programme since 1959. This programme intends to reduce the malarial parasite in human population to such a negligible proportion that once it has been achieved there is no danger of resumption of local transmission. After the complete eradication of malaria the existing mosquitoes will cease to transmit malaria. The area under the eradication programme in 1959-60 was the entire District and only one round of D. D. T. spraying in each of the villages of the District was carried out. In addition to spraying, surveillance work has also been started in the District since 1960. Surveillance is a procedure by means of which cases of malaria occurring in the entire community are detected and adequate steps taken to cure them. This is being intensified.

Tuberculosis.—Tuberculosis was on the increase in larger towns in the first decade of the century and this was probably due to over-crowding in populous centres of the District. The daily stress and strain to which the people are put in the changed socio-economic conditions of existence also constituted another reason. Since then tuberculosis continues to be the greatest killer of all the infectious diseases. Control measures adopted include both preventive and curative aspects. There is a T.B. clinic in the compound of Victoria Hospital, Jabalpur, built in memory of late Dr. B.N. Barat in 1938 It has an outdoor clinic with all facilities for diagnosis and treatment. With the help of the Government of India, in 1958, 100 M.A. X-ray machine with arrangements for Mass Miniature fluoro-photographs, (70 M.M.) has been installed at this centre. Laboratory investigations like culture of tubercle bacillus and drop resistance tests are also possible.

Domiciliary treatment is being given for which an annual provision of Rs. 15,000 for drugs, etc., exists. The Victoria Hospital provides facilities to under graduates of Medical College, Jabalpur,

for practical training. New cases of pulmonary tuberculosis diagnosed during different years are given below :—

Year	Cases
1950-51	1361
1951-52	1326
1952-53	1849
1953-54	1831
1954-55	1766
1955-56	1434
1956-57	1525
1957-58	1585
1958-59	1700
1959-60	1785
1960-61	1874
1961-62	2581

The B.C.G. Vaccination campaign is in operation since May 1951. As suggested by the Government of India, the scheme of collaboration between private Medical practitioners and T. B. Clinics was introduced at T. B Clinic, Jabalpur, during the year 1962-63, on experimental basis.

The following table shows the work done by the B.C.G. Team in Jabalpur region

Year	No. of Persons	
	Tested	Vaccinated
1951 ..	13,151	4,173
1952	15,460	4,774
1953	Nil	Nil
1954	Nil	Nil
1955	1,23,994	42,083
1956	Nil	Nil
1957	Nil	Nil
1958	28,806	12,561
1959	73,499	23,451
1960	15,289	6,146
1961	456	201

Leprosy—Leprosy is not an uncommon disease. Cases that come up for diagnosis are usually of the maculo-anaesthetic type. As no survey is carried out, it is not possible to state precisely the extent of the disease. One Leprosy Centre was started at the Victoria Hospital in March 1960 in charge of a specialist. Here the registration, examinations, treatment, etc., of the patient is done daily. Special investigation facilities exist and a few complicated cases requiring admission, are provided indoor facilities. During the year 1960-61, 660 cases were registred, while in 1961-62 the number of cases diagnosed was 50.

Venereal Diseases—After the advent of sulphonamides and antibiotics, there has been a remarkable decline in the incidence of acute gonorrhoea and primary chancre. These cases are rarely seen in the out-patient department. However, chronic cases of gonorrhoea and endemic syphilis are fairly common. The diagnosis of syphilis has been more seralogical than clinical. There is a V. D. clinic in the Victoria Hospital since March 1960 under a specialist.

Guinea Worm—Guinea worm infection is endemic in Katni tahsil and is mainly due to the use of step-wells.

Diptheria—Diptheria occurs sporadically, a few cases every year, but the disease has not so far assumed any dangerous proportions so as to require large-scale preventive measures.

PUBLIC HOSPITAL AND DISPENSARIES

Organisation of the Medical Department

The Civil Surgeon continues to be the administrative head of the Medical Department for the District since 1864. He is in overall charge of the Government hospitals and dispensaries in the District and has also a right of inspection over all private dispensaries. He was looking after both the medical and public health wings of the department until 1958 when an Additional Civil Surgeon was posted to the District to look after the work of public health and primary health centres and also to coordinate health activities of Local Bodies and Development Blocks. The Civil Surgeon is assisted by a number of Assistant Surgeons, Assistant Medical Officers and other medical and para-medical personnel, who are posted in Main Hospital, Jabalpur and other dispensaries situated at tahsil headquarters. The Additional Civil Surgeon has been provided with a separate health staff. The Additional Civil Surgeon has to seek the advise of the Civil Surgeon, as and when necessary.

Number of Hospitals and Dispensaries

There were seven dispensaries maintained from dispensary funds, three of which *viz.*, the Victoria Hospital, the City and Civil Dispensary, were located at Jabalpur, while the others were situated at Sihora, Murwara, Patan and Bijairaghogarh. There were also Police, Jail and Cantonment Hospitals at Jabalpur and a dispensary maintained by the Church of England Zenana Mission at Panagar. There is also a Military Hospital exclusively maintained for military personnel since 1861. This is, of course, the oldest medical institution of the District. Till 1927 there were only nine dispensaries. The seven hospitals and dispensaries managed by Local Bodies and dispensary fund committees in the District, were provincialised by the State in 1959. At present, there are six hospitals, 18 dispensaries and one T. B. clinic in the District.

Beds Provided in Government Hospitals and Dispensaries.—During 1906-07, the Vicitoria Hospital had accommodation for 64 in-patients; and the institutions at Sihora, Murwara and Patan were equipped for 6, 10 and 6 in-patients, respectively. The Police Hospital had 24 beds. During 1927, the total number of beds for male and female patients available in various hospitals and dispensaries in the District, was 101 and 64, respectively. Since 1927, there has been a marked increase in the number of beds of various Government managed and aided hospitals and dispensaries in the District.

The following Table indicates the total number of beds in recent years:

Years	Number of beds
1947-48	497
1050-51	550
1960-61 . ..	969
1961-62	969

Expenditure on the Government Hospitals and Dispensaries—During 1871 the manner in which the Government aid was rendred, was by appointment of an Indian Medical Officer to the charge

of the dispensary and supply of certain European medicines. The other expenditure such as construction and repairs of buildings, furniture, etc., were met by local subscriptions and contribution and by municipal and other grants. Committees of management consisted of influential residents and Civil Surgeon who used to visit and inspect the dispensaries. The committee of management had all the control over the expenditure of dispensary funds. The average annual income of the dispensaries in the District maintained from the dispensary funds was Rs. 15,651 of which Rs. 4,566 were contributed by Government, Rs. 9,025 by local bodies and Rs. 1,915 by subscriptions. During 1927, the income of the Government managed and aided institutions was Rs 129,883 and expenditure Rs. 1,00,359. Since then expenditure on medical service has increased considerably as can be seen from the figures in the table below: —

Years	Expenditure in Rupees.
1956-57	3,49,281.70
1957-58	3,75,341.35
1958-59	4,00,045.85
1969-60	10,45,022.49
1960-61	13,13,615.33
1961-62	3,54,344.70

Distribution of various Government and private hospitals and dispensaries, number of Doctors and Nurses and other para-medical personnel is given below as in 1960-61

Jabalpur Tahsil (Urban)

Victoria Hospital.—It is a District headquarters hospital established in the year 1876. Till 1916 the present surgical ward with two side buildings, was the main hospital building with ground-floor accommodation only It was donated by Raja Gokuldas in 1876. In 1916, the first floors of the two buildings were raised and family wards were constructed. Electric power House for the hospital with X ray facilities was also provided during this period. In 1932 Randhir Staing Laxman building was constructed and it is serving as an out-patient department of the Hospital. Further extension to this out-patient department was made in 1957, with minor operation theatres and an eye ward in the upper floor.

A separate T. B. (Chest) Clinic was started in 1938. In 1948 a double storyed Nurses' quarters were constructed. A Deep X-ray plant was installed in 1955. A separate big three storyed building was constructed for the accommodation of 150 patients. It is interesting to note that in 1920 the Hospital had 80 beds with only three Nurses and one *Dai*. At present there are 350 beds with 52 Doctors and 108 other medical and para-medical personnel.

The total annual expenditure is about Rs. 4½ lakhs. The Victoria Hospital has a Nurses Training School for General Nursing of three-year course. It first started functioning, from the year 1931, the examining body being the Vidarbha Nurses Council till 1956. The Nurses are being taught according to the Indian Nursing Council Syllabus. Public Health was integrated in the course from 1956. During 1961-62, the training programme has been augmented by adding 25 more seats, thus making a total of 77 seats.

The number of students passing the Nursing Course is given below:—

Year	Nurses
1950	5
1951	11
1952	9
1953	4
1954	14
1955	9
1956	9
1957	8
1958	13
1959	6
1960	11
1961	14

Elgin Hospital.—It is a very old institution, probably started in 1873, with its sister branch, the children's hospital (known as Crump Hospital). It was located at Miloniganj area. In 1942, the new double-storeyed building was constructed at the present site,

as Munnalal Ramchandra donated Rs. 50,000, towards the construction. The Hospital has got 202 beds with 14 Doctors and 26 other medical and para-medical personnel. This Hospital is also serving as a training centre for Nurses from the year 1937. Now it mainly provides maternity training to the General Nurses and training to Auxiliary Nurses and Midwives.

Since November 1956, due to the establishment of a Medical College at Jabalpur under the Second Five Year Plan both these hospitals have been attached to the college. All kinds of specialist services are available at these institutions for all classes of patients. The Victoria Hospital is serving as a Medical and Surgical unit and Lady Elgin Hospital as an Obstetrical and Gynaecological Unit for teaching facilities.

The Nurses' training centres provided training facilities in—

1. Senior Midwifery—6 Months training for general trained and registered Nurses in Part A: 6 Seats.

2. General Nursing—3½ years course: 24 Seats, and

3. Auxiliary Nurse Midwife—2 years: 40 Seats.

The year-wise number of students passing Nursing examination was—

Year	General Nursing	Senior Midwifery	Auxiliary Nursing Midwife
1950	1	..	..
1951	2	4	..
1952	3	1	..
1953	1	1	..
1954	3	1	..
1955	1	5	..
1956	..	6	..
1957	..	5	10
1958	6	15	9
1959	6	31	..
1960	5	40	1
1961	14	[illegible]	8

Police Hospital.—It was started in 1918 in the Police Lines for the treatment of Police personnel and their families. There is accommodation of 50 beds with a full time Medical Officer and other necessary subordinate staff to look after the patients.

Jail Hospital.—It is situated inside the Jail and mainly meant for the treatment of prisoners and under-trials. It also provides outdoor treatment for the Jail staff. The Medical staff consists of one full time Medical and two Assistant Medical Officers.

S.A. F. Hospital.—It was started in 1948 at Khamaria for the S. A. F., with an accommodation of 10 beds and one Medical Officer to look after.

Cantonment General Hospital.—It was started in the year 1924 for the treatment of the people of Cantonment area. It is managed by the Cantonment Board. The present new building was constructed in 1932. It has got accommodation for 40 beds inclusive of the Maternity Home.

A Military Medical Officer with the help of a male and female doctors run the administration. The annual expenditure is about Rs. 50,000.

Infectious Diseases Hospital.—It is managed by Jabalpur Corporation. It is situated at a place known as Chandal Bhata. Previously, there were only a few huts for the isolation of infectious cases, but in 1922, the Municipal Committee (now Corporation) appointed a Health Officer for the first time, who gave it the shape of a Hospital. It, however, took another 10 years for a separate Medical Officer to take charge of the Hospital. It has got accommodation for 20 permanent cases and 60 temporary cases. Only cases under infectious diseases are admitted for isolation and treatment.

Military Hospital.—The first building of the Military Hospital was constructed in 1861. In 1918, X-ray facilities were made available. The Hospital maintains a full-fledged laboratory with facilities for culture.

In the year 1905, the Gun-Carriage Factory was built at Jabalpur and with it came a dispensary inside the precincts and a hospital known as Satpulla Hospital on the G. C. F. Estate. The new hospital building was constructed in 1931 and has got 32 beds. The factory employs six male Doctors and a Lady Doctor.

During the Second World War, the Ordinance Factory at Khamaria was established. The township around the factory has a population of about 20,000 persons for whom Khamaria Hospital was started in the year 1942, with 75 beds. The number of beds continues to be the same till today. It has six male and two Lady Doctors. Besides, there are medical inspection rooms attached to each small establishment, such as, C.O.D., A.C.C., etc.

Railway Hospital.—Till 1935 Jabalpur was the Junction of G. I. P. Railway., E. I. Railway and B. N. Railway. It was in the year 1926 that E. I. Railway handed over this section to G. I. P. Railway and since then the present Central Railway Hospital came under their control. Gradually segregation wards, family wards and casualty wards were added. It has got accommodation for 60 beds, and an X-ray plant which was installed in 1942. At present there are four male Doctors and six Nursing Sisters to assist the D. M. O. The B. N. Railway section is also maintaining one outdoor dispensary.

City Dispensary.—It is situated in front of Kotwali. Before 1876, when Victoria Hospital did not exist it might have been the first dispensary serving the population of Jabalpur. The dispensary was started in 1870. The present building was donated by Rai Bahadur Kapoor Chand. It is under the management of the Dispensary Fund Committee. The Dispensary has one male and one female outpatient department separately incharge of one Assistant Medical Officer (male) and one Lady Assistant Medical Officer.

Civil Dispensary.—This came into existence in the year 1913-14 for the residents of Civil Lines. It is situated near the Police Lines and is also managed by the Dispensary Fund Committee. This dispensary also serves as a centre for post-mortem examination.

Mohanlal Hargovind Charitable Dispensary.—Through the efforts of Dr. (Late) George D'Silva, this dispensary was started in the year 1947 in the Madan Mahal area and is financed by the Firm Mohanlal Hargovind.

Seth Munnalal Jagannath Charitable Dispensary.—It was started in the year 1957 by the Trust of the same name in Miloniganj area.

Garha Dispensary.—It is run by the Jabalpur Corporation.

Bhantalaya Dispensary.—It is run by the Jabalpur Corporation and was started in 1956.

Employees State Insurance Dispensaries.—Under this scheme outdoor dispensaries came into existence in 1957, at

Ghamapur, Lalmati, Wright Town and Perfect Pottery for the insured workmen and their families.

The Mahakoshal Mahavidyalaya and the Engineering College are also having outdoor dispensaries with a separate Medical Officer in each.

Jabalpur Tahsil (Rural)

There is an outdoor dispensary at Imlai. Till 1958 it was managed by the Janapada Sabha. On 1st January, 1959, it was provincialised.

There is Primary Health Centre at Barela and another is being opened at Kundam.

Katni Tahsil (Urban)

There is a second grade hospital at Katni with 31 beds. Till 1958 it was managed by the Municipal Committee, Katni, but now it has been taken over by the State Government. Recently. in 1961-62, a new X-ray plant was set up in this dispensary. Anti-rabic treatment, maternity and child-welfare facilities have also been provided.

Katni Tahsil (Rural)

There are outdoor dispensaries at Barhi and Bijairaghogarh, which have been provincialised. Primary Health Centres have been opened at Kanhwara, Barhi and Badwara.

Sihora Tahsil (Urban)

There is a 12 bedded hospital at Sihora. It was formerly a Dispensary Fund Committee Hospital, but now it is provincialised.

Sihora Tahsil (Rural)

The Janapada Sabha was running four outdoor dispensaries at Majholi, Bakal, Teori and Boharibund till 1958, but now they have been taken over by the State Government.

Patan Tahsil (Urban)

There is also a hospital at Patan with six beds. It was formerly managed by the Dispensary Fund Committee, but now it is provincialised. It also serves as a Primary Health Centre, for Patan

Block. It includes a Maternity and Child-welfare Centre, which not only caters to the maternity and child welfare needs, but also, provides field training for auxiliary Nurses and Midwives. Another Primary Health Centre is being opened at Chargwan. At Natwara in Shahpura Block, arrangements are being made for field-training for the medical students in preventive and social medicine.

Industrial Concerns.—Telegraph Workshop, Burn and Company, Electric Supply Co., Jabalpur, A.C.C. Katni and Kymore, are offering medical help to their employees by maintaining their own dispensaries and Medical Officers. The total number of indoor and outdoor patients treated in the different Government hospitals and dispensaries in the District during 1960 and 1961 is shown below:

Year	Indoor Patients	Outdoor Patients.
1960	3,433	1,56,198
1961	3,533	1,56,163

Continuous health supervision of the expectant mothers and children is necessary for improving the standard of health of the coming generation Such supervision is carried on in the District in what are called maternity and child welfare centres run by Public Health Department, through maternity and child welfare centres run by voluntary organisation and through Project Implementation Committee centres run by Social Welfare Advisory Board. The services provided by these centres to the mothers and children are adequate prenatal care, intranatal care and postnatal care. Now the child-welfare centres in the Community Development Blocks have been converted into Primary Health Centres with various Sub-centres. A Primary Health Centre is an organisation, providing or making accessible under the direct supervision of at least one physician, the basic health services for a community. A Primary Health Centre is staffed by a qualified Medical Officer, one Health Visitor, four Midwives, one Compounder, one Sanitary Inspector, and three to four ancillary staff In the centre, the Health Visitor deserves a special mention. She has special training in the problems of health-needs of mothers and children. She is also a trained Midwife and supervises the work of the Midwives or trained *Dais*.

In all the Primary Health Centres facilities for maternity cases exist. Besides this, there are 45 Matru-Grihas, in the rural areas of the District. Owing to insanitary conditions existing in the home,

Maturu-Grihas have been provided in the villages, where women can go for their confinement, with the indigenous practising *Dai* in attendance.

Provision also exists for giving institutional midwifery service through maternity homes and Primary Health Centres. Since it is not possible to afford institutional care to entire population, domiciliary maternity care has been provided through Primary Health Centres. To supplement domiciliary maternity care in the villages covered by the Primary Health Centres, training of indigenous *Dais* practising in the area has also been undertaken in the District.

Maternity Homes in Urban Areas.—In addition to the facilities for maternity welfare provided in the Government institutions in the urban areas, the Matru Seva Sadan, Jabalpur, is also doing good work. The Matru Seva Sadan was started in 1941 with 12 beds, but now it is quite a flourishing institution.

The first private maternity home was started in the year 1939 at Wright Town. Some of the subsequent efforts made in this line also proved quite successful.

Medical Facilities Provided in Rural Areas.—Government's solicitude for the medical aid in the rural areas finds its practical expression in the care of rural population of the District through various dispensaries situated at important villages and through various Primary Health Centres and Sub-centres established during the Second Plan period. Medical Services provided in the past were quite meagre, considering the size of the District and the size of the rural population. But now with the establishment of the Community Development Blocks in the rural areas of the District, medical aid is being provided adequately through the agency of Primary Health Centres and Sub-centres. At present there are 13 Primary Health Centres with Sub-centres in the District as shown below:

S. No.	Primary Health Centres	No. of beds available	Sub-Centres
1	P. H. C. Barela	6	1 Dhanpuri 2. Piparia 3. Padaria
2	P. H. C. Bahoriband	6	1. Teori 2. Deori 2, Slahudi

S. No.	Primary Health Centres	No. of beds available	Sub-Centres
3	P. H. C Patan	6	1. Nunsar 2. Katangi 3. Dhanwara
4	P H. C. Barhi	6	1. Khitoli 2. Piparia 3. Saliya Sihora
5	P. H. C. Chargawan	6	1. Kohala 2. Bhidka 3. Charpondi
6	P. H. C Majhgawan	6	1. Kumbi 2. Gosalpur 3. Fanwani
7	P. H. C. Badwara	6	1. Bhajia 2. Nanhwara 3. Amadi
8	P. H. C. Kundam..	6	1. Chouri 2. Theria 3. Singor
9	P. H. C. Dhimarkheda	6	1. Paharua 2. Dhasarman 3. Umariapan
10	P. H. C. Bijairaghogarh	6	1. Itora 2. Bhanswani 3. Karitaai
11	P. H. C. Tilwaraghat	2	
12	P. H. C. Majholi	6	
13	P. H. C. Kanwara	6	1. Deori Hatai 2. Pahadi 3. Kanudia

Ayurvedic and Unani Dispensaries

In addition to the above Allopathic medical institutions, medical relief is also provided by a net-work of 53 *Ayurvedic* and *Unani* dispensaries under different Janapada Sabhas and seven Government *Ayurvedic* dispensaries. There is also one Homoeopathic dispensary and one Ayurvedic college in the district. The committee appointed to examine the indigenous systems of medicine, practised in the Central Provinces and Berar in 1939 had recommended the Government "that medical relief on *Ayurvedic* and *Unani* lines should be extended on a large scale wherever possible" and that "one *Ayurvedic* or one *Unani* dispensary should be established for every area of ten miles in radious."[1] The

1 Report on the Committee appointed to examine the indigenous system of medicine in C. P. & Berar 1939, p. 1.

Government had accepted this recommendation in principle. During 1959, Government decided to give financial assistance to Local Bodies in the establishment of *Ayurvedic* dispensaries as they did in case of Allopathic dispensaries. The Government provided grants for the opening of one *Ayurvedic* dispensary in each tahsil of the district, and also to subsidise an equal number of Vaidyas to enable them to settle in rural arears.

PRIVATE HOSPITALS AND NURSING HOMES

The first Allopath Doctor to start as a private practitioner, in this part of the region was Dr. P. U. Mishra in 1906. Later, many private and retired Doctors settled. Among the old ones, the more remembered Doctors are Dr. G. N. Harshey, Dr. R. B. Choudhary and Dr. S. K. Barat. Special mention is to be made of Dr. S. K. Barat, one of the veterans of the profession, who took the lead in opening a full-fledged hospital in 1939 with the facilities for pathology, maternity, artificial pneumothorax, etc. In addition to various specialists, there are more than 200 private practitioners in the District. There is also a nursing home which was started by Dr. R.N. Chatterjee in October, 1956. This is quite an up-to-date surgical nursing home having accommodation of 22 beds.

RESEARCH CENTRES

Medical and Health Research.—Research is an integral part of the activities of the various departments of the Medical College, Jabalpur, since its inception in the year 1956. Research work is also carried out in this institution under the auspices of the Indan Council of Medical Research, on subjects like atherosclerosis, spermatogenesis, partial obstruction of bile ducts and 17 ketosteroids in health diseases.

Other agencies like the branches of Indian Medical Association and Indian Red Cross Society have also contributed much towards disseminating information on public health problems. The Indian Medical Association, Jabalpur Branch, was started in the year 1921. In recent years, the I.M.A. Jabalpur branch has progressed a good deal. The membership strength has also increased to 110. Now,

monthly clinical meetings are held regularly During the annual gathering, scientific sessions are arranged on a large-scale and pre minent speakers even from outside the State are invited Similarly, the branch of the Indian Red Cross Society, which was first established 50 years ago, is also doing valuable work. The Red Cross Month is celebrated every year on a large-scale.

Food Laboratory.—A food laboratory under the Civil Surgeon, Jabalpur, meant primarily for the detection of food Adulteration under the Prevention of Food Adulteration Act, 1954, has been established recently. This enactment includes provisions for eradicating the evil practice of food adulteration that has been rampant in the country.

Nutrition.—Nutrition and diet surveys are also being carried on in the preventive and social medicine department of the Medical College, Jabalpur.

Family Planning.—A Family Planning Clinic was established at the Elgin Hospital in May 1956 with a token aid from the Rotary Club, Jabalpur. The services rendered comprised advise on family limitation, and proper spacing of children, examination and treatment of sterility cases, and sterilisation of suitable cases on medical and socio-economic grounds. There is another Family Planning Clinic run privately by Dr. P. L. Chopra in Jabalpur City since 1952 Dr. P. L. Chopra has written about nine books in Hindi on Family Planning for the use of laymen. The Regional Family Planning Training Centre at Jabalpur was established in April 1962. It conducted two training courses of two months duration during the year. In all 15 Health Visitors, 5 Staff Nurses, and 2 Midwives were trained at this centre.

Family Planning exhibitions and baby shows were organised periodically by the Red Cross and Jabalpur Medical Association to disseminate information about family planning.

There are 10 State managed Family Planning Centres in the District located at Barhi, Barela, Kanhwara, Patan, Bohriband, Badwara, Natwara, Majhgawan, Katni and Jabalpur. The number of sterilisation operations done during the year 1961 and 1962 in all the above centres were 406 and 464, respectively.

SANITATION

Administration Set-up.—During 1864-65, in order to give professional support to the efforts which were made for the sanitation and conservancy of the towns, the Medical Officer of the District was appointed as the *ex-officio* Sanitary Officer of the Local and Municipal Committees. He made conservancy and sanitation of the chief towns of the District his special care. In the rural areas, it was a difficult matter to introduce any system. But during 1865-66, a translation of Village Conservancy Rules had been placed in the hands of the land-holders and occasional inspections of district officers sufficed generally to secure a measure of cleanliness. But the main difficulty encountered was the insufficiency of the funds available for any improvement During 1908. there existed three municipal committees in the District at Jabalpur, Sihora and Murwara. The average municipal income per head was Rs. 3-2-6 and general administration, conservancy and education were the principal heads of expenditure. In the rural areas of the District, Village Sanitation Act continued to be in force till 1904. Patan and Panagar were the villages covered under this Act. The provisions of this Act continued to be in operation until 1918 when, due to the introduction of Gram Panchayats, administrative control of the villages under sanitation was assigned to them By 1928, in the urban areas of the District, municipal committees were spending fairly well on water supply, conservancy. charge of the Sanitary Inspectors, charge of the vaccinators and other sanitary requirements. Now, the public health and sanitation of the District is looked after by various agencies, *viz*, the Public Health Department of the State Government, the Local Bodies and Municipal Committees in the urban. and Janapad Sabhas and the Community Development Blocks in the rural areas.

The Civil Surgeon of the District continues to be the principal officer on the public health side. But due to the increasing activities of the Health Department, in 1953, an Additional Civil Surgeon was posted to the District to assist the Civil Surgeon.

In urban areas of the District, there are two Municipal Committees at Murwara and Sihora and Corporation of the City of Jabalpur and Cantonment Board at Jabalpur. They have their separate sanitary and health staff. The Public Health Department of the State Government, however, functions as an advisory body for the problems of public health.

In rural areas, the responsibility for the improvement of health conditions and sanitary arrangements rests with four Janapada Sabhas. The Janpad Sabhas have their own Sanitary Inspectors who supervise the sanitary arrangements carried out by Gram Panchayats. The Government are contemplating comprehensive health service for rural population through the agency of Community Development Blocks in the District. As a step in this direction, several Primary Health Centres have been established in the District during the Second Plan period. These Primary Health Centres in the different Development Blocks form the nucleus for health services in the areas covered by these Blocks.

Each Primary Health Centre has the following staff:

1. One Medical Officer,
2. One Health Visitor,
3. Four midwives,
4. One Sanitary Inspector,
5. One Compounder and
6. Others.

The basic services that are provided by this team are:

1. Medical care,
2. Maternal and child-health services, including family planning,
3. Health education.
4. Control of communicable diseases,
5. Environmental Hygine and
6. Collection of vital statistics.

The Medical Officer of the centre is also the Health Officer of the area which the centre serves and exercises the statutory powers of the health or sanitary authority in that area.

Activities of Health and Sanitary Organisation.—In the urban areas of the District, not much has been done towards slum-clearance. The question of slum clearance in the town is still under the consideration of the Municipal Corporation of Jabalpur. There is no other town in the District except Jabalpur which has impounded reservoir. The Jabalpur town water-supply scheme was initiated in December 1881. Water is supplied from Khandhari reservoir, which belongs to the Municipal Corporation. The total supply of water is about six million gallons per day. The water-supply samples are examined by the Public Health Engineering Department six times in a year. The quality of the water is very good.

In the rural areas of the District, covered under the Development Blocks, the sanitary and health activities have made much headway during the Second Plan period.

Water Supply.—Most of the villages had no protected supply of drinking water. Water used to be obtained from unprotected tanks, lakes, rivers, etc. As they are open to pollution they constitute a constant source of disease, therefore, the maintenance of safe water-supply is a major part of health activities. With this end in view, construction and renovation of drinking water wells has been under-taken on a large-scale under the programme of Community Development in the District.

Rural Latrines and Soakage Pits—There is no proper method for the disposal of garbage. Hardly five per cent of the houses have any latrines. The majority of the villagers use open space around a village for these purposes. Proper facilities like public latrines, urinals as also the disposal of human excreta in a systematic way, are the health measures essential for the control of many communicable diseases. The table below shows the number of soakage pits and rural latrines constructed annually from 1956-57 to 1961-62.

Year	Soakage Pits	Rural Latrines
1956-57	50	15
1957-58	100	30
1958-59	200	50
1959-50	350	75
1960-61	450	100
1961-62	680	150

These figures indicate that rural sanitation is receiving increasing attention of the authorities concerned.

CHAPTER XVII

OTHER SOCIAL SERVICES

After the attainment of Independence which was followed by the establishment of a National Government at the Centre, labour welfare, especially the welfare of industrial workers, has been receiving greater attention of the Central as well as State Governments. Practically all aspects of labour welfare are now being dealt with under the Central as well as State enactments. Voluntary labour welfare measures initiated by the enlightened industrialists, conforming to the standards laid down under the statute or more favourable to the workers are, however, allowed to continue. From the list of different Central and State enactments enumerated in the following pages as applicable to Jabalpur District it is apparent that the welfare of labour is no more a matter of philanthropic or enlightened view of the employer in relation to the employees, but a matter of rights legally enforceable.

The responsibility of administration of these Acts generally rests with the Assistant Labour Commissioner who is the head of the Divisional Labour Office. This Division consists of two Revenue Divisions, *viz.*, Jabalpur and Rewa, having 15 districts in all. There are two Labour Officers one for the Revenue Division of Jabalpur having 8 districts and another for Rewa Sub Division consisting of 7 districts. All the officers of the Division are vested with powers under different labour laws. Three Labour Inspectors look after the enforcement of Minimum Wages Act while five Inspectors of Shops and Establishment are employed for the implementation of the Madhya Pradesh Shops and Establishments Act in ten towns of Jabalpur Revenue Division. There is no separate Inspectorate for a particular district. The Labour Welfare Supervisor looks after the Welfare Centres and organises various activities in furtherance of welfare schemes. The Labour Officer and the Assistant Labour Officer investigate complaints from workers of industrial establishments and try to establish peaceful industrial relations by settling differences and redressing grievances of the workers. The Labour Officer is also required to acts as a representative of workers in industrial disputes if and when the workers so desire. The Assistant Labour Commissioner being the Divisional head has an overall responsibility for maintaining industrial peace. Prevention of strikes and lockouts and settlement of disputes by

conciliation and arbitration is the responsibility of the Assistant Labour Commissioner. He generally tries to bring about agreement by reconciling divergent points of view of the employers and trade union representatives. He is usually an Officer-in-charge of all cases filed in the High Court of Madhya Pradesh. Jabalpur, against the Labour Department.

As regards labour judiciary in the District, under the Madhya Pradesh Industrial Relations Act 1960, a Labour Court has been established at Jabalpur to decide all labour disputes All cases under the Madhya Pradesh Shops and Establishments Act are tried by the Magistrate, First Class, in all towns where this Act is applicable. The Deputy Collectors are empowered to deal with all cases under the Payment of Wages Act, the Factories Act and the Minimum Wages Act. They are also declared Commissioners for Workmen's Compensation Act. The following paragraphs describe briefly the nature and extent of welfare facilities which are provided under some of the above enactments that are in force in Jabalpur District.

The Factories Act, 1948—Provisions relating to welfare facilities to be provided for workers are contained in Chapter V of the Act. These cover such items as washing facilities, facilities for storing and drying clothes, sitting arrangements and rest. shelters, first-aid appliances, canteens (in case of factories employing over 250 workers), lunch-rooms (in case of factories employing over 150 workers) and creches (in case of factories employing more than 50 women workers). Factories employing 500 or more workers are required to appoint a Labour Welfare Officer to look after the welfare of workers. The State Government are empowered to prescribe the duties, etc., of these officers and also to order any factory or class of factories to associate the representatives of employees with the management of the welfare facilities.

Madhya Pradesh Shops and Establishments Act, 1958.—As early as 1947 the Central Provinces and Berar Shops and Establishments Act was passed with a view to regulating the working conditions of the employees in shops and establishments. This Act was later amended in 1949 and was made applicable to Jabalpur and Katni towns in the District. Another amendment to this Act was passed in 1950. relating mainly to compulsory closing of establishments for one day in a week, and it came into force with effect from 31st October 1950. This position continued till the Madhya Pradesh Shops and Establishments Act 1958 was made applicable from 1st January 1959. Under this Act, the working conditions of the employees in shops and commercial establishments, the daily and

weekly hours of work, rest intervals, opening and closing hours of establishments, payment of wages, overtime pay, holidays with pay, annual leave, employment of children and young persons, etc., are regulated. For overtime work the Act provides that employees shall be paid at twice their ordinary rates of wages. All establishments shall be closed for one day in a week and no employee shall be dismissed, except under certain circumstances, unless he is given one month's notice or wages in lieu thereof. It also contains provisions relating to cleanliness, ventilation, lighting and precautions against fire in establishments covered by the Act. There is also a provision relating to Provident Fund and every employer is required to provide provident fund benefit to every employee by contributing to the fund an amount equal to the amount contributed by the employee, but not exceeding 6¼ per cent of his wages. The following table shows the working of the Act in Jabalpur District.*

Year	No. of shops, Commercial establishments, etc., covered by the Act.	No. of Inspections.	Prosecutions Launched.	Cases Disposed of by Courts.	Amount of fine imposed, in Rs.
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)
1959 ..	3826	3235	253	185	2304
1960 ..	793	1905	307	284	4746
1961 ..	624	3714	223	206	2117
1962 ..	1212	6844	486	104	3770

The Payment of Wages Act, 1936—"The main purpose of the Act is to ensure regular and prompt payment of wages and to prevent the exploitation of wage-earners by prohibiting arbitrary fines and deduction from wages". "By an amending Act, i.e., the Payment of Wages (Amendment) Act, 1957, the wage limit was raised from Rs. 200 to Rs. 400 p.m." The Act is applicable to factories and industrial establishments.

The Minimum Wages Act, 1948—The State Government have fixed minimum wages under this Act in the Scheduled Industries like rice, flour, *dal* and oil mills bidi-manufacturing, construction or maintenance of roads, building operations, local authority, public transport, printing presses, cement, potteries, leather and tannery, lac manufactory, glass works, etc. The minimum rates of Wages

*The Act is applicable to two towns in the District viz. Jabalpur and Katni, figures relate to these two towns.

as prevalent at the time of the Reorganization of States *i.e.*, in the year 1956, came to be revised later in the year 1959 and were made applicable to all the integrating units on an uniform basis. The employment in tanneries and leather manufactory within the District, along with those in certain other districts, were exempted from the provisions of certain sections of the Act and Rules during 1960. The minimum rates in respect of rice, *dal* and flour mills, tabacco manufactory, oil mills, local authority, construction or maintenance of roads, building operations, stone-breacking and stone crushing and public motor transport were rendered unenforceable with effect from 31st August, 1960, as a result of Madhya Pradesh High Court decision. In the year 1962, an Ordinance was promulgated by the Governor, known as M. P. Minimum Wages Fixation Ordinance, according to which minimum rates were fixed in these industries and were made enforceable from 1st January 1959. Under this Ordinance minimum wages were also fixed in agriculture. By fixing minimum wages, chances of exploitation of labour, which is the main cause of friction and non-co-operation between employers and employees, are obviated.

The Workmen's Compensation Act, 1923.—"The object of the Act is to impose an obligation upon employers to pay compensation to workers for accidents, arising out of and in the course of employment, resulting in death or total or partial disablement for a period exceeding 7 days. Compensation is also payable for some occupational diseases". The Act applies to certain categories of railway servants, and workers, whose monthly wage does not exceed Rs. 400 and are employed in any capacity specified in Schedule II of the Act. Those workers, who are covered by the Employees' State Insurance Act, 1948, are not entitled to compensation, etc., under this Act as disablement benefit is available to them under the former.

The position with regard to the Workmen's Compensation Act is that, till the middle of 1958 it was administered by the District Judge and after that these powers were delegated to the District Magistrate and Sub-Divisional Magistrates, and from 26th October, 1962, the Judge, Labour Court, Jabalpur has been entrusted with the powers of the Commissioner of Workmen's Compensation.

The following table shows the working of the Workmen's Compensation Act, 1923, in Jabalpur District.

Year	Amount of Compensation Awarded in Rs.	Amount of Compensation paid in Rs.
(1)	(2)	(3)
1958	57,757.12	4,817.80
1959	32,506.26	525.00
1960	9,846.89	3,810.00
1961	6,371.42	9,145.91 *

The Employees' State Insurance Act, 1948—"The Employees' State Insurance Act, 1948 is a pioneering measure in the field of social insurance in the country. It was enacted to provide for certain benefits to employees in case of sickness, maternity and employment injury and to make provisions for certain other related matters". It applies in the first instance, to all factories, other than seasonal factories, run with power and employing 20 or more persons. It covers persons employed directly and indirectly and also clerical staff but does not apply to a member of the Armed Force or to a person, whose remuneration in the aggregate exceeds Rs. 400 a month. In Jabalpur District the scheme was extended to Jabalpur centre alone on 28th July, 1957. The medical care is being provided free of cost through service system to the insured persons. The State Insurance Dispensary is adequately equipped for this purpose. From 26th January, 1959, facilities for restricted medical care have been extended to the families of insured persons. Advice and guidance on family planning is also being given to insured persons and their families. This scheme has been applied to 51 factories, and 4,500 employees have been insured under the scheme in Jabalpur centre During 1961 as many as 57,654 patients were treated, 46 operations performed and 16,290 injections given. As regards families of insured persons. 38,868 patients were treated and 8,096 injections were given during 1961. By the end of 1962, the scheme covered as many as 61 factories and 4,000 family units in Jabalpur.[1]

1. Compendium of Labour Statistics, 1962, p. 9.

*During the year 1961, an amount of Rs. 3,500 was deposited for disbursement to the dependents under section 8 (1) of the Act.

The Employees' Provident Fund Act, 1952—The Employees Provident Funds Act, 1952 provides for the institution of compulsory provident funds for employees in factories. The purpose is to make some provision for the future of the industrial worker himself after he retires or for his dependants in case of his early death. It applies in the first instance to factories employing 50 or more persons (20 in case of newspaper establishments) and which have completed three years of their existence. The employees' contribution to the Fund has been fixed at 6¼ per cent of the basic wages and dearness allowance including the cash value of food concessions given to the employees. The employers are required to contribute the same amount as contributed by the employees in respect of them. However, if the employees so desire, they may contribute more, subject to a maximum of 8⅓ per cent of their basic wages and dearness allowance. The administration of the Funds vests in the Central Board of Trustees, which is a tripartite body.

In Jabalpur District the Employees Provident Funds Scheme 1952, framed under the Act, was brought into force on 31st July 1956, when it was applied to Jabalpur Electric Supply Company, Jabalpur, National India Rubber Works, Katni; Central India Electric Supply Company, Katni: Olpherts Private Limited, Katni; and Ishwar Industries, Niwar. Katni Thus in the first stage of the enforcement of the scheme in the District, 888 workers of the industrial establishments referred to above were covered. Subsequently, during the month of August of the same year, this scheme was extended to the Singhai Mojilal, Jabalpur and in November to Simplex Engineering and Foundry Works, Jabalpur, which further covered 117 workers. In the third stage, the scheme was extended to the Indian Hume Pipe Company, Jabalpur, on 1st January 1960, covering 47 workers. On 31st December 1960, Shri Vijay Dal Mills, Jabalpur; Bombay Garage, Jabalpur; Shri Mahabir Rice and Oil Mills, Katni; Jamuna Dal Mills, Jabalpur: Mohan Dal Mills, Jabalpur; and Jabalpur General Industries, Jabalpur with a total strength of 87 workers were covered under the scheme.

The Madhya Pradesh Maternity Benefit Act, 1958—With a view to achieving uniformity and a minimum standard of maternity benefits the Government of Madhya Pradesh amended the previous Act of 1930 and the Madhya Pradesh Maternity Benefit Act, 1958, was made applicable from 1st January 1959 It may be noted that in the areas, where the Employees' State Insurance Act has been implemented, the employers are absolved of their liability under

the Maternity Benefit Act. Following are the main provisions of the Act:

1. Qualifying Conditions—9 months' service preceding the date of notice.
2. Period of Benefit—12 weeks.
3. Rate of Benefit—7/12th of average daily earnings or 75 paise per day, whichever is higher.

The amended Act of 1958, provides for payment of a medical bonus of Rs. 10 to women workers on maternity leave. if no pre-natal or post-natal care of any approved type is provided by the employer under the Employees' State Insurance Act, 1948

Housing Facilities—In any scheme for the welfare of the people importance of proper residential accommodation cannot be gainsaid. Government having been aware of this fact made a beginning in the year 1949, under the Industrial Housing Scheme. Under this scheme two-thirds cost of construction was given to the employer as loan and one-third contribution was made by the employer. In the year 1952, subsidized industrial housing scheme was introduced. Under the scheme funds are provided by the Central Government, 50, per cent of which are in the shape of loans and 50 per cent as subsidy. The scheme operates through the M P. Housing Board, which is constituted under the Madhya Pradesh Board Act, 1950. The following table shows the number of houses constructed, number of workers benefited, etc., in Jabalpur District.

Year (1)	No. of houses Constructed (2)	No. of Workers Benefited (3)	Cost of Construction In Rupees (4)	Rent charged Per House per month in Rupees (5)	Location (6)
1955	100 (Industrial Housing Scheme).	100	2,74,490	..	Gwarighat, Jabalpur.
1958	200 (under Subsidised Industrial Housing Scheme).	200	6,60,000	8	Do.
1959	68 Do.	68	2,55,700	10	Do.

In addition, work was to be started during 1963-64 for the construction of 200 houses at Jabalpur and 200 houses at Katni at a total cost of Rs. 13,20,000 for the workers.

Labour Welfare Centre—Under the First Five Year Plan, one Labour Welfare Centre was started by the Labour Department in the Sarai area of Jabalpur city in 1953. The second Labour Welfare Centre was opened in the Gohalpur area of the city in 1956 and the third in Perfect Potteries, Labour Colony, Jabalpur in 1960. The first centre caters to the needs of about 1,500 workers of Burn & Co., and the Power House, while the Gohalpur Centre serves about 2,000 bidi workers and weavers The activities of these centres include in-door games, library, drama and music, cinema show and talks, adult education, anti-drink propaganda, competition in sports and neat and clean houses, and religious programmes. In the Sarai Centre, a sewing class was opened on 15th August 1958, under a trained instructor who imparts training to women workers and female members of the families of industrial workers Another item of welfare is the daily distribution of free powdered milk to the children of the workers Free milk is also distributed at the Gohalpur Labour Welfare Centre The Labour Department of the Government of Madhya Pradesh have incurred an expenditure of Rs.18,652.01 during the period from 1956 to 1961 in carrying out these welfare activities. In March 1962, the sewing class in Sarai Centre was closed, followed by the permanent closure of the Sarai Labour Welfare Centre itself on 1st October 1962 The remaining two centres are functioning properly

Technical Training—As a part of the Craftsman Training Scheme launched by the Government of India, Ministry of Labour and Employment, the Labour Department of the State has taken up the Technical Training Scheme It is a contributory scheme and the total expenditure is shared in the ratio of 60:40 between the Centre and the State In the month of August 1958, one Industrial Training Institute was set up at Jabalpur under this scheme. For the first shift 160 seats have been sanctioned and an equal number for the second shift. In January 1959, the number of trainees on roll was 70 only Again as against the sanctioned strength of 320, there were only 194 trainees in 1960. Of these 54 trainees passed out during the year.[1] In this Institute training is imparted in the trade of fitter.

Evening Classes.—At Jabalpur, evening classes have also been started for imparting training in technical trades to 25 workers.

Welfare Work by Employers and Workers' Organisation.—From an account of the labour welfare measures under different

1. Annual Report on the working of the Labour Department for the period from 1st January, 1960 to 31st December, 1960 (1962), p. 21.

Central and State Government enactments given in the preceding pages it becomes clear that very little remains to be done in this field by the Employers or workers' organisations on a voluntary basis. However, as stated earlier, the labour welfare facilities voluntarily given by the employers are allowed to continue if they confirm to or are better than the standards laid down under the statute. It is only the enlightened employers in the large-scale industries who had been conscious of their responsibilities in relation to the welfare of their employees. As an instance one finds that as early as 1885, on the establishment of Gokuldas Ballabhadas Spinning and Weaving Mills at Jabalpur, the management provided residential facilities to about 112 of their employees in 59 tenements There was gymnasium (*akhada*) provided on the mill-premises. The Mills had constructed dining sheds for the workers, and attendance in the school run by the factory management was made compulsory for half-timers amongst the mill employees.

Gun Carriage Factory, Jabalpur.—This factory provided housing facilities for its workers quite early. Besides, there existed one Anglo-Vernacular Middle School aided by the Local Government for the education of workers' children and half-timers, and gratuity to workmen of long approved service or to their widows paid out of a Fine Fund In addition to these, a co-operative credit society was in existence in the factory for advancing loans to members at a low rate of interest A co-operative supply store also existed in the workmen's line, where any workman could obtain food-stuffs at reasonable rates and on credit up to a certain limit varying according to his pay. In recent years considerable progress has been made in this concern of the Government in the field of Labour Welfare activities

Telegraph Workshop, Jabalpur.—This is a Government of India concern under the Ministry of Communications. For housing the factory workers, which numbered 1722 in the year 1961, there is a colony attached to the workshop, consisting of 100 'D' type quarters, 140 New Mistry Chawls, 50 Old Mistry Chawls and 40 Dormitories, which are used by the trainees Under the statutory welfare measures, adequate staff has been provided for cleaning the shops regularly. The management of the Workshop have introduced a healthy competition amongst their different shops. As an incentive to maintain their shops, sections and other similar establishments in a good order, which is necessary also to prevent accidents, etc., a running trophy is awarded to the shop which is considered to have maintained itself neat, clean, and orderly.

Two water-coolers have been installed within the Workshop area for the supply of wholesome drinking water to the workers. A number of water taps have also been provided at different places. The latrines provided are service type, but are maintained in a clean and sanitary condition. Sufficient number of urinals are also provided at different places. There is a dispensary under the charge of a qualified Medical Officer who treats minor cases of sickness and accidents. During the quarter ending 31st March 1961, as many as 1,754 persons and 629 cases of minor accidents were treated. First-aid boxes are provided in different shops. In the absence of ambulance van, conveyance charges are paid by the Department in cases of accidents while on duty. Some spitoons have been provided in certain shops. For lunch-room a canteen hall is being used. During the quarter ending 31st March 1961, the income of the canteen was Rs 4,261.10, while its expenditure amounted to Rs. 3,734.66.

So far non-statutory welfare facilities are concerned, a Co-operative Credit Society has been functioning since 1953. It advances loans to its members at low rates of interest. For the quarter ending 31st March 1961, the total capital of the society was Rs. 94,040 total loan advances Rs. 37,090 and the number of members to whom loans were advanced was 184. The Labour Welfare Fund Organisation has started contributing towards two daily newspapers One adult education class is being conducted with an average attendance of 15 workers. There are cycle-stands located at various places in the workshop, where the workers can keep their cycles free of charge, but at their own risk. In addition to these, in the colony area, there is one primary school and one Montessori school. The Primary and the Montessori schools are run by the employees of the Telegraph Storeyard. The Primary school is housed in the residential quarters, while the Montessori school has its own building. Electricity is provided in the 'D' type quarters and 'Type-1' new quarters The consumption charges are paid by the occupants of the quarters. The employees of the workshop have been conducting a Co operative Clinic and a subscriber, who should be an employee of the workshop, is required to pay an annual subscription of Rs. 6 This clinic in colony area has proved to be of immense help in rendering timely medical help, especially to the workers' families. It is housed in a quarter allotted on a nominal rent of one rupee per month. The Medical Officer of the Workshop has been allowed by the employer to attend the clinic in the evening. An elected committee from amongst the members looks after the management of the clinic with the assistance and co-operation of the Medical Officer.

The Perfect Pottery Co. Ltd., Jabalpur.—The Pottery Works employs over 1,000 workers and has laid out a colony, where practically all the workers reside in rent-free quarters. There is a well-equipped dispensary and Primary school, besides provision for all welfare facilities under different enactments.

Burn And Company Limited, Jabalpur.—The Welfare facilities provided to the labourers include street lighting, roads, conservancy, rent-free quarters or rent in lieu thereof, recreation clubs, games, canteen, etc.

The Ishwar Industries Ltd, Niwar (Katni).—The number of workers employed in this unit was 206 including 18 women in the year 1961. The statutory welfare facilities provided include Provident Fund, Employees' State Insurance and leave with wages, while the voluntary welfare facilities include free unfurnished residential quarters, free water and a co-operative store.

Jabalpur Electric Supply Co., Ltd., Jabalpur.—In the year 1961, there were 339 workers employed in the company. For their welfare, the Company provides a Social Welfare Fund voluntarily. Statutorily it provides benefits under the Employees' State Insurance Scheme and the Employees' Provident Fund Scheme.

Everests Asbestos Cement Roofing Asbestos Cement (Private Ltd.), Kymore.—In the year 1961, there were 1,698 workers employed by the company. A canteen is run by the Company for workers, where tea and snacks are sold at cost price. A large number of workers have been provided with electrified quarters. There is a full-fledged Middle school for the childran of the employees, and about 300 children attend the school regularly. There is a scheme to defray part of the expenses incurred by the employees on the education of their children receiving secondary schooling outside. The Company has its own hospital with a qualified Doctor, Compounders and Midwife. Seven beds are provided, both for male and female. Free treatment is given to employees and members of their families. There is a sports and recreation club for the employees of the company. The club provides newspapers, magazines, library, radio-set, amplifier, loudspeaker, etc. Annual sports are held regularly, when prizes are distributed to the competitors. Cinema show is arranged for the employees once a month free of charge. The employees have a Consumer's Co-operative Society, where food-grains and other necessities of daily life are made available at reasonable prices. The management have provided buildings for this purpose, besides transport facilities for bringing in materials from the market, which is 28 miles away.

The Associated Cement Companies Ltd., Kymore Cement Works—The Kymore Cement Works has developed its labour colony into a prosperous industrial township with a High School for boys and girls, a Montessori school, a Primary school and a Middle school, imparting free education to children and dependants of its employees. The colony has a hospital with 18 beds and an X-ray plant. There are children's parks, club with spacious buildings, play-grounds and two public cinema houses in the colony.

Films are exhibited by the Works management with the help of their own projector for the employees. Marketing facilities have also been provided, which include a weekly market, a co-operative society, grocery shops, flour mills, a petrol-pump, etc. In addition to the activities of the Cement Works, the Associated Cement Companies Ltd., are running an Engineering institute for imparting training to 75 students annually, the duration of the training being three years.

Jabalpur Bijlighar Karmachari Panchayat Jabalpur—This is a recognised union of the workers and is affiliated to I. N. T. U. C. organisation. Under its auspices a separate committee, styled as Bijlighar Samaj Kalyan Samiti, Jabalpur, has been constituted for carrying on labour welfare activities. The Samiti conducts its various programmes through four Mandals, viz., Pramod Mandal, Kreeda Mandal, Sanskritik Mandal and Shikshan Mandal. The Pramod Mandal arranges recreational programmes like *Bhajans, Quawalis,* weekly *Ram Charit Manas*, etc. The Kreeda Mandal is responsible for conducting indoor and outdoor games and sports, annual social functions, etc. The Sanskritik Mandal performs cultural programmes like drama, and celebrates national festivals. The activities of the Shikshan Mandal include a library, adult education, lectures, etc.

PROHIBITION

History of Excise Policy—An Excise Tax, known as Kalali or *Abkari*, was collected in the same manner as land revenue during the rule of the Bhonslas over the territory comprising Jabalpur. The right to manufacture and sell spirituous liquor used to be given to the highest bidder. This practice was continued during the early period of British administration. No definite policy was evolved during this early period, and excise was looked upon purely as a source of revenue.

It was in the year 1904, that a committee was appointed, known as the Central Provinces Excise Committee, to enquire into the different systems of excise, then in force in the province. The proposals of this Committee in regard to the country spirit emphasised on the supply of distilled liquor "of a nature and strength acceptable to local consumers under guarantee of purity..............". The important proposal of the Committee referred to the cost of manufacture and transport, as well as the circumstances for retailing the stuff. The latter were to be such as "to ensure a thorough control at a minimum cost and place it within the reach of all who demand it without prohibitory difficulty on the one hand and without undue facility or temptation to drink on the other." This introduced a definite break from the old policy of the Government looking at excise as a source of revenue. An element of solicitude of the Government towards consumers of country spirit entered by way of preventing "undue facility or temptation to drink.".

In the following year, i e, 1905, the then Government of India appointed the Indian Excise Committee, and in their resolution dated 7th September 1905, appointing that Committee, enunciated the Excise Policy generally being such as "to minimise temptation to those who do not drink, and to discourage excess among those who do, and to a furtherance of this policy, all considerations of revenue must be absolutely subordinated.". As a means to this end the tax upon liquor was to be raised, but was not to be so high as to stimulate illicit consumption or substitution of harmful drugs for alcohol. The number of shops were to be restricted and their location was to be subject to strict examination. Quantity of liquor offered for sale was also to be such as not to prove injurious to health.

In pursuance of the above policy this Committee of the Government of India also examined the Excise Administration in the then province of C. P. and Berar and found that the C. P. Government had taken up the question of reducing the number of shops. However, in view of the difficult terrains in the provinces and the scattered population who were well-versed in the knowledge of distilling with wide distribution, a "go slow" policy was recommended in raising the price of country spirit as well as in reducing the number of shops.

Another land-mark in the excise policy of the State begins from the year 1921, when the First Reformed Legislative Council in a resolution recommended to the Government "to stop within as short a period as may be practicable the sale of country liquor through

the whole Province.". This was a movement towards prohibition. However, no specific period was given within which the total prohibition was to be achieved. Reduction of drinking, facilities, number of hours of sale, strength of liquor, limitation of supplies, etc., were some of the administrative measures adopted by the Government. Thus there was a complete break from the old Excise Policy of Temperance, as the new one aimed at Prohibition.

Working of the above policy was reviewed in 1935, through an appointment by the State Government of a Committee by the Resolution dated 1st June, 1935. The Committee found out after investigations that "the persistent pressure of restrictive measures, particularly high prices, and the curtailment of facilities of obtaining licit liquor operated to reduce the consumption of licit liquor on the one hand and to a phenomenal increase in the consumption of illicit liquor, on the other, involving enormous loss of revenue.". The Committee further recommended a 'Zonal' policy of excise reform in view of the heterogenous nature of the State, and suggested that propaganda and education of public opinion, should be the precondition of introducing Prohibition in different tracts of the State.

These recommendations, however, were shelved, when the Government of Congress Party came to power in the State in the year 1937. The difficulties in the way of Prohibition like illicit distillation and sacrifice of revenue were brushed aside, and the Central Provinces and Berar Prohibition Bill, 1937 was introduced and brought into force from 1st April 1938, in certain areas, which included the industrial town of Katni-Murwara in the District. This area was declared "dry" and all shops selling country spirit, foreign liquor and toddy were closed, except one foreign liquor "off" shop at Katni catering to the Europeans and permit-holders. With a view to avoiding smuggling into "dry" area, a shopless belt around a five mile radius of the dry area was created. This was further extended to 10 miles radius from the beginning of 1939 Shops in Municipal towns within the enlarged area. were however, allowed to remain.

Under this Act, the Excise Commissioner was appointed as the Prohibition Commissioner. District Excise Officers, Excise Inspectors and Sub-Inspectors. Excise Jamadars and Peons were invested with powers of the duties of Prohibition Officer, by notification on 26th May, 1938. Officers of Forest and Revenue departments as also the Police, were also invested with certain powers under the Act. From 1st January, 1939, sale and consumption of *charas* were prohibited throughout the State.

Exigencies of the II World War brought about a reversal of the Prohibition Policy of Excise in the State. In 1944, the Act was amended, empowering the State Government to declare the Act inoperative in the areas to which it was applied. Accordingly, the town of Katni-Murwara was excluded from the operation of Prohibition Act.

With the assumption of power by the Congress, after Independence, the question of Prohibition was again taken up. Katni-Murwara in the District was again declared a "dry" area, along with other areas in the State. Modification in the scheme of total Prohibition was, however, introduced from 1st February, 1953. From this year as an experimental measure, the permit system was introduced in Katni-Murwara tahsil of the District. This system is working in the District since then.

Main Features of the Revised Scheme.—The main features of the revised scheme are mentioned below —

1. All the liquor shops of the Tahsil were closed and auction system in respect of them was abolished.
2. Liquor was allowed to be supplied to the addicts under permits granted by the authorised Excise Officers.
3. The age limit of the permit holders was fixed at 21 years and above.
4. Liquor was supplied in sealed bottles of eight drams capacity of the strength of 60° U. P.
5. Permits were granted on payment of Rs. 2 for each per unit.
6. The minimum and maximum quantity of supply of liquor to the permit-holders was one and eight bottles of 8 drams capacity, respectively.
7. Liquor was supplied to the addicts from the shops established under Commission System.
8. The possession of *ganja* and *bhang* by an individual was allowed to the extent of 2 *tolas* and 10 *tolas*, respectively, as in the case of wet areas of the District.
9. *Ganja* and *bhang* were supplied from the licensed shops established under auction system.
10. Consumption of opium was allowed to addicts under permit system upto ½ *tola* per month.

Anti-Drink Movements And Temperance.—Prior to the introduction of Prohibition, only the Public Health Department delivered lectures with the help of leaflets on temperance and the harmful effects of giving opium to children. But it was recognised from the very beginning that a condition precedent to a successful prohibition policy was the creation of a strong public opinion against drink. To achieve this, propaganda was carried on by means of magic lantern, lectures and distribution of thousands of anti-drink posters and leaflets, and several mass meetings were held at different centres and addressed by the Minister for Excise, the Excise Commissioner and influential leaders. Subsequently, a Prohibition Propagandist was appointed from 15th August 1953, to devise ways and means for doing effective propaganda in favour of Prohibition in the State. Every year a Prohibition Week is celebrated. The Tribal Welfare, Social Welfare and Publicity Departments have also been continuing to depict evils of drinking and explaining advantages of abstinence to the villagers.

During 1939 four Thrift and Better Living Societies were registered in Katni town

Other Measures

In pursuance of the policy of Prohibition, the other measures taken in the District include reduction in the quarterly quota of supply of liquor and opium to permit-holders in Katni tahsil. The number of days on which shops were kept compulsorily closed was increased from 9 to 25, which included almost all the festivals and national days observed in the country. The number of liquor shops was reduced from 52 to 39 A few shops were shifted from thickly populated areas to the outskirts of the locality, where the population was comparatively less There has been no reduction in the strength of liquor in wet areas of the District because the strength of two kinds of liquor, i.e., 45° U P. and 60° U. P was supposed to be weaker as compared to the strength of liquor prescribed in other parts of this State. For Katni the strength of this liquor has been lowered down to 60° U. P. Although the limit of possession of foreign liquor has not been reduced, yet its sale to an individual at a time was reduced to two bottles only. Similarly, possession of *ganja* and *bhang* was fixed at two *tolas* and ten *tolas*, respectively, while the possession, sale and consumption of *charas*, *chandu* and *madak* have entirely been prohibited. The sale and consumption of opium were stopped in the "dry" area of Katni from 1st April, 1948, and in the rest of the District from 1st April, 1949. It was allowed only on medical grounds to permit-holders, when certified by the authorised medical officers.

The rates of the issue price of country spirit (duty plus cost price), prevalent in the various areas of the District during the year 1949, have been gradually raised up to the year 1962-63 as detailed below:

S. No.	1949		S. No.	1962-63
1.	Rs. 22—8—0 per L.P.	..	1.	Rs. 33—0—0— Per L.P.
2.	Rs. 16—14—0 per L.P.	..	2.	Rs. 25—0—0 per L. P.
3.	Rs. 7—13—0 per L.P.	..	3.	Rs. 15—0—0 per L.P.
	Rs. 66—4—0 per L.P.			

The supply price of liquor in the area of Katni tahsil was raised from Rs. 37-8-0 and Rs. 22 8-0 per L. P. of town and rural areas, respectively, to Rs. 45-0-0 per L. P. for the whole tahsil.

The use of denatured spirit for drinking purposes was prohibited and penalised under section 35 of the Excise Act and Section 7 of the Prohibition Act and was made punishable with imprisonment to the extent of six months or fine to the extent of Rs 2,000. To minimise the misuse of denatured spirit as a drink, quota for monthly and annual sale of the spirit by the licensee has been fixed in the District from 1960. For excise offences of illicit distillation and possession of liquor the punishment of imprisonment was made compulsory from the year 1960, which was further tightened by fixing the minimum limit of punishment to one month's imprisonment and a fine of Rs. 200 from the year 1961.

Difficulties Encountered in Enforcement.—Katni presents a serious problem to the prohibitionists. Its geographical position as a railway junction and connection by motorable roads with the adjoining wet areas makes control exteremely difficult. The absence of a live, local public opinion in favour of prohibition has added to the difficulties. The Excise staff is not sufficient in the District to enforce the law effectively in view of the increasing tendency towards illicit distillation, smuggling, etc. Generally respectable people do not take any interest in co-operating with the excise official in the detection of excise crimes. They usually hesitate to volunteer themselves as *Panchas*. The only witnesses available are generally people of the lower status, who are very easily won over by the offenders and a large number of excise cases fail in the court of law on account of the tampering of the prosecution witnesses.

In addition to this, the business of illicit liquor is so lucrative that persons, inspite of fines imposed in the court of law, find it profitable to continue this anti-social and illegal vocation.

Prohibition Offences—Towards the close of April 1938, Government decided that the prevention, detection and prosecution of offences under the Prohibition Act should be entrusted to the Police, which is a larger and better-equipped department. Accordingly, the Police took over the work in Katni after 23rd November 1938. The excise staff stood by and helped in technical and other matters. During 1938, seven cases of illicit distillation were detected in Katni town, and for offences against the Prohibition Law 43 persons were prosecuted. The punishments were generally felt inadequate. In 1939, the number of illicit distillation cases detected in Katni town was four, cases of illegal possession or smuggling of liqour numbered eleven. In the year 1946, the number of illicit distillation cases detected in Jabalpur District was six, whereas it rose to 15 in 1947.

The following table shows the number of classified offences of liquor in Jabalpur District :—

Year	Smuggling of Liquor	Illicit Distillations of Liquor	Other offences	Total
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
1948	44	73	153	270
1949	17	96	122	235
1950	2	144	102	218
1951	2	135	68	205
1952	2	131	168	301
1953	18	221	96	335
1954	13	237	112	362
1955	6	233	113	372
From 1st Nov. 1956 to 31st March, 1958	7	222	137	366
1958-59	7	187	104	298
1959-60	3	172	[illegible]	325
1960-61	2	210	83	295
1961-62	6	442	117	565

According to the office records of the Senior Superintendent of Police, Jabalpur District, the yearwise number of cases registered under the Prohibition Act from 1950 to 1960 are as under :—

Year		No. of Cases Registered	Year	No. of Cases Registered.
(1)		(2)	(3)	(4)
1950	..	89	1956	315
1951	—	72	1957	358
1952	—	130	1958	182
1953	..	143	1959	220
1954	—	218	1960	428
1955	..	209		

With effect from 1st January 1948, the sale and consumption of opium, *ganja* and *bhang* were also prohibited in the "dry" areas, as it was found that after the introduction of the Prohibition Act, many liquor addicts in the "dry" areas had taken to drugs. The following table shows the number of classified offences of intoxicating drugs and opium in Jabalpur District :—

		Hemp Drugs			Opium			
		Illicit Culti-vation of *Ganja*	Other Offen-ces	Total	Smuggl-ing of opium	Other Offen-ces	Offences relating to *Madak*	Total
(1)		(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)	(8)
1948	..	1	80	81	13	43	9	65
1949	..	2	70	72	2	23	11	36
1950	..	..	58	58	1	22	21	44
1951	..	1	53	54	1	35	13	49
1952	—	1	43	44	1	21	7	29
1953	—	3	48	51	—	15	7	22
1954	—	1	76	77	6	11	8	25
1955	—	—	61	61	—	30	5	35
From 1st November, 1956 to 31st March, 1958		9	78	87	—	11	8	19
1958-59	—	3	95	98	—	18	11	29
1959-60	—	42	48	90	—	4	3	7
1960-61	—	2	42	44	2	6	2	10
1961-62	—	2	40	42	—	4	7	11

The following table shows the number of persons prosecuted, convicted, imprisoned, amount of fines imposed and amount of rewards paid to informers, captors, etc., against the offences referred to above in Jabalpur District :—

Year	Results of Prosecution			Amount of Fines Imposed in Rs.	Amount of Rewards Paid to informers captors, etc. (in Rs.)
	Prosecuted	Convicted	Imprisoned		
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)
1948 ..	317	197	3	6,576	1,478
1949 ..	253	167	3	5,065	914
1950 ..	238	155	13	1,933	1,622
1951 ..	202	136	8	4,029	1,082
1952 ..	309	162	2	2,809	1,194
1953 ..	314	230	8	6,305	1,040
1954 ..	371	325	7	9,273	2,805
1955 ..	415	299	5	9,254	2,659
From 1st Nov., 1956 to March, 1958.	401	171	5	5,950	1,133
1958-59 ..	319	185	2	7,870	3,263
1959-60 ..	300	178	4	6 713	1,497
1960-61 ..	389	315	16	6,574	527
1961-62 ..	625	368	368	11,668	364

Degree of Success Achieved.—The prohibition has of course not been successful in the rural areas because the people are not fully aware of the evil effects of the illicitly distilled liquor to which they resort to in the prohibited areas. In the urban areas also serious and sincere efforts, from the side of the society, as a whole, to discourage drinking habits are wanting. People do not co-operate with the Government by rendering due help to the administration in taking offenders to task. On the contrary, they try to protect them by concealing their crimes and by not standing as witnesses. Prohibition has led to increased illicit distillation and smuggling and consumption of delecterious substitutes like denatured spirit and tinctures. Other malpractices like misuse of spirituous medical preparations as drinks have also arisen.

ADVANCEMENT OF BACKWARD CLASSES AND TRIBES

According to 1961 Census the total population of the Scheduled Castes and Scheduled Tribes was 2,75,306. This works out to about 21.61 per cent of the total population of the District. The Scheduled Castes population was 1,20,317 i.e., 9.44 per cent of the total population, while the number of persons classified as Scheduled Tribes was 1,54,989, i.e., 12.16 per cent of the total. From amongst the Scheduled Castes the numerically most important happened to be the Chamars, variously known as Chamari, Mochi, etc., being 6,13,304. Next to Chamars, were Mahars, numbering 14,683, and the third in order of numerically important was the caste known as Basor, i.e., 13,503. There were 11,631 Koris and 5,677 Mehtars or Bhangis.

From amongst the Scheduled Tribes the Gond population was the highest, i.e., 64,353. Population of Kol and Bharia was 56,733 and 31,838, respectively. The Scheduled Castes population in the District was divided under 12 distinct castes, and the rest were grouped as unclassified. Similarly, the Scheduled Tribes were classified under 14 different tribes, the rest being unclassified. From amongst the Scheduled Tribes, Gonds were known by 40 different names like Arakh, Agaria, Badi Maria, Madia (Maria), etc.

About 21.61 per cent of Scheduled Castes, and Tribes was a sizable portion of the District population, and an account of what the Government are doing for their welfare is given in the following pages.

Welfare Schemes.—Welfare of backward classes find expression in removing their social and economic disabilities by offering them equal opportunities for their betterment. It was in the sphere of education that a beginning was made in this direction during the days of British Rule in the country. As a result discriminatory treatment of the students belonging to the Scheduled Castes was abolished from all Government schools and colleges. Keeping in view the dire poverty prevailing among these classes, free education in the Government schools and colleges was also provided. Special scholarships were given and reservation of certain percentage of seats in the Normal School was introduced. After Independence, with the establishment of National Government at the Centre and in the State levels, this process is gained further. The number of schools and hostels for the students has increased manifold. Besides scholarships and stipends, free lodging, clothing and books are being provided to the students from backward classes.

Scholarships and Stipends.—The District Education Officer Jabalpur, awarded stipends and scholarships, amounting to Rs. 10,971.87 paise to 60 students of Scheduled Castes and Rs. 6,633.99 paise to 37 students of Scheduled Tribes in the District from 1948-49 to 1962-63. The Divisional Superintendent of Education, Jabalpur Division, awarded stipends and scholarships, amounting to Rs. 8,370.90 paise to 52 Scheduled Castes scholars and Rs. 3,388 to 18 Scheduled Tribe scholars in Jabalpur District from 1948-49 to 1961-62. The Directorate of Tribal Welfare, Madhya Pradesh, awarded 1,477 scholarships to Scheduled Castes, 2,272 scholarships to Scheduled Tribes and 688 scholarships to students of Other Backward Classes and spent a total amount of Rs. 1,06,143 towards scholarships, examination fee, value of books, etc., from 1956-57 to 1961-62. The District Panchayats and Welfare Officer, Jabalpur, also awarded 199 scholarships amounting to Rs. 34,276.80 paise to students of Scheduled Castes from 1958-59 to 1960-61 In the Basic Training College, and the Normal School for Women at Jabalpur, stipend at the rate of Rs. 25 p.m is given to the Scheduled Tribe trainees through the Director of Tribal Welfare, Madhya Pradesh. Stipend is given for the entire period of training. From 1958-59 to 1961-62, Rs. 9,644.12 paise were awarded to 28 Scheduled Tribe trainees including one girl trainee.

In addition to the above, the Government of India instituted a scheme for grant of scholarships to the Scheduled Castes in 1944-45. This benefit was extended to the Scheduled Tribes in 1948-49 and to other Backward Classes in 1949-50. The scheme has been decentralised with effect from 1959-60 Under this Centrally-sponsored scheme. allotments are placed at the disposal of the Commissioners of Divisions by the Directorate of Tribal Welfare, Madhya Pradesh, for the award of post-Matric scholarships to Scheduled Castes, Scheduled Tribes and other Backward Classes. During 1960-61 and 1961-62, 601 scholarships amounting to Rs. 2,39,576 to Scheduled Castes, 317 scholarships amounting to Rs. 1,36,106 to Scheduled Tribes and 977 scholarships amounting to Rs. 5,43,308 to other Backward Classes were awarded in the Jabalpur Division.

Harijan Balwadi.—At village Shahpur in Patan tahsil of the District a *Balwadi* for the children of the Scheduled Castes was started on 3rd December. 1958. One lady teacher is in charge of this *Balwadi*. Total expenditure on this *Balwadi* from 1958-59 to 1961-62 was Rs. 8084.41.

Hostels.—In July 1962, the Directorate of Tribal Welfare, Madhya Pradesh, started three hostels for Scheduled Tribes students, one each at Patan (Patan tahsil), Vilayat Kalan (Murwara tahsil) and

Imlai (Jabalpur tahsil) at a total cost of Rs. 79,740. Each hostel has accommodation for 20 students. All the three hostels are named after Motilal Nehru.

Community hostels, separately for boys and girls belonging to the Scheduled Tribes, were constructed at the Divisional headquarters, i.e., Adhartal, Jabalpur, at a total cost of Rs. 2,45,000. The capacity of the boys hostel is 50, while that of the girls hostel is 20.,The boys hostel, which started functioning from August, 1962, is named after Motilal Nehru, while that for the girls is known as Kamla Nehru Hostel.

Housing and Drinking Water Wells.—Under the Centrally-sponsored scheme in respect of better housing for Scheduled Castes, 70 houses have been constructed in the District from 1957-58 to 1960-61, at a cost of Rs. 52,500. Each family was given a subsidy of Rs. 750 per house, by the Government. Similarly, 25 drinking water wells at a cost of Rs. 50,000 have also been constructed in the District from 1957-58 to 1961-62.

Agricultural Subsidies.—Under the scheme "Agricultural Subsidies to Scheduled Castes" an amount of Rs. 8,500 has been distributed among 17 Scheduled Castes families in Jabalpur District at the rate of Rs. 500 per family, during the year 1961-62. Out of this amount a sum of Rs. 300 was earmarked for purchasing bullocks and Rs. 200 for implements, seeds, etc. Of the 17 families, 14 were from Patan tahsil and 3 from Sihora tahsil. During 1962-63 an amount of Rs. 4,000 was allotted for distribution among eight families in the District under this scheme.

Industrial Loans and Training Programme.—The State Government grants loans through the Directorate of Industries to persons belonging to the Scheduled Castes to carry on their industrial occupations. Accordingly, from 1959-60 to 1961-62, as many as 17 persons engaged in leather tanning. Shoe making and other leather works were given loans to the tune of Rs. 11,800. Besides, two persons engaged in carpentry were given Rs. 850 as loan. Facilities for providing training to the Scheduled Castes, Scheduled Tribes and Other Backward Classes in certain occupations also exist. Two training centres in leather industry were started, one at Bahoriband in July, 1958 and another at Sleemanabad in February, 1958. In the former 22 trainees were trained and in the latter 5. Both these centres were, however, closed in February. 1961. On 2nd August, 1960, a Leather Goods Training-cum-Production Centre was started at Patan in which 19 trainees were trained. In addition to

this, under the Rural Arts and Crafts Scheme, five training centres were started in the District at 5 different C.D. Block areas of Shahpura, Sihora, Katni, Jabalpur (Barela) and Dhimakheda. Training in leather industry was started on 25th August, 1958, in Jabalpur, on 20th January, 1959 in Katni, on 25th May, 1959 in Shahpura, on June, 1961 in Sihora, and in September, 1962 in Dhimakheda Blocks. During the Second Five Year Plan period 77 trainees were trained in these industrial arts. At present out of the five, only two centres are working. Training Centres in cane and bamboo work were started in Jabalpur and Katni Block areas on 25th August, 1958 and 19th May, 1959, respectively. In February, 1958, a Training Centre in soap stone industry was started at Bhedaghat in which 6 Harijans received training. It was, however, closed subsequently.

Co-operative Societies.—In the economic sphere the Backward Area Welfare Scheme envisaged the establishment of multi-purpose co-operative societies, each of which covering some 15 to 20 villages. Four such societies were organised in Jabalpur District for Scheduled Tribes, one each at villages Supwara, Chorai, Ghaghra and Tilsani, and were registered on 1st September, 1947, 9th May, 1948, 5th October, 1948 and 12th July, 1949, respectively. The other three multi-purpose co-operative societies of Scheduled Tribes have been organised at villages Imlai, Jhinna Piparia and Vilayat Kalan In all, in these three societies, there are 294 Tribal and 143 non-Tribal members. For credit business four primary co-operative societies for Scheduled Tribes have also been organised As regards Scheduled Castes, 12 Industrial co-operative societies of Chamkars have been organised in the District. For credit business, 24 primary societies for Scheduled Castes have also been organised.

Work done by Local Bodies.—Besides different departments of the State Government like Co-operative, Tribal Welfare, Industries, Education, etc., Local bodies in the District are also looking after the welfare of Scheduled Castes and Scheduled Tribes in the matters under their jurisdistion. The students belonging to backward classes are admitted in all schools under the Municipal Corporation, Jabalpur. Majority of the Corporation employees in the category of backward classes are sweepers. Although no special financial help is given to children, of the sweepers in the schools working under the Corporation yet special attention and preference is given to these children when free reading material is distributed. It is in the provision of housing facilities to their sweeper employees that the Corporation has made its mark. Rent-free quarters are provided to 400 families. Those who are not provided with free quarters are paid Rs. 2 per month as rent allowance. As early as 1950-51,

52 tenements were constructed at Thakargram for the sweepers at a cost of Rs. 1,57,000. During the period 1957-58 to 1961-62, 85 more tenements at a cost of Rs. 2.59 lakhs were constructed at Ranital. During 1963, construction work on 8 quarters at a cost of Rs. 30,000 at Galgala near Sunday market (Gurandi) was in progress along with two more schemes for construction of sweepers' quarters. An important change was brought out by the Corporation authorities, from the year 1960, by introducing hand-carts for the disposal of night-soil. About 340 hand-carts were provided for this purpose. This was a significant break from the old system of carrying night-soil as head-loads, which was derogatory to human dignity as well as unhygienic.

The Municipal Council, Murwara—The Municipal Councils of Murwara and Sihora have also introduced hand-carts for the disposal of night-soil by the sweepers. Besides this, the Murwara Council has provided land to its 12 Harijan employees for construction of huts, and has undertaken a scheme for providing 50 tenements to their Harijan employees at an estimated cost of Rs. 1·88 lakhs. Sihora Municipal Council has similarly provided 6 huts to its Harijan employees at a cost of Rs. 3,000 as early as in the year 1951-52.

Activities of the Janpada Sabha, Jabalpur, in respect of the welfare of Scheduled Castes and Tribes are mainly in the sphere of their education. The Janapada Sabha is managing six Primary schools, one Middle school and a hostel for aboriginals from April, 1950. The Primary schools are located at Gauri, Jhiria, Chauri-Kalan, Ghugra, Tima and Ghat-Piparia villages in the Janapada area The Middle school and the hostel are at Kundam. At a cost of Rs. 6,600 two buildings for schools, one at Kusdam and the other at Tilsani, were purchased in the year 1952. A school building was constructed at village Gauri in 1955, at a cost of Rs 2,000. The Primary schools at Jhiria, Ghat-Piparia and Chauria-Kalan have been converted into Middle schools. At Kundam Middle school ninth class was opened in 1961 and tenth class in 1962 An annual expenditure of about Rs. 14,000 is incurred in managing these institutions for which the Janapada Sabha receives grant-in-aid from the State Government.

The Janapada Sabhas at Murwara and Sihora have provided facilities for drinking water by constructing wells for Scheduled Castes and Scheduled Tribes population in their respective areas, From 1950-51 to 1960 61 Janapada Sabha, Murwara had constructed 15 new wells and repaired 16 old ones. Expenditure incurred on both these counts was met by liberal grant-in-aid from the State Government, contribution from the people, and the Janapada Sabha.

The Sihora Janapada Sabha constructed 12 wells for the use of Scheduled Tribes and Scheduled Castes people in the rural areas, from April, 1957, to March, 1961. Government grant in this connection amounted to Rs. 15,000, while Rs. 8,000 came as contribution from the public and the Janapada Sabha.

Voluntary Agencies—Among the voluntary organisations working in the sphere of welfare of Scheduled Castes and Tribes in the District, mention may be made of the Mahakoshal Harijan Sewak Sangh, Jabalpur, which was working upto 1956 under the aegis of the Akhil Bharatiya Harijan Sewak Sangh, an all-India organization. With the reorganization of the State, the Mahakoshal Harijan Sewak Sangh was reorganised into two divisions. One of these divisions consists of 22 districts, mostly of Madhya Bharat region, while the other includes 21 districts of Vindhya Pradesh and Mahakoshal regions. The administrative unit of the former is at Indore and that of the latter at Chhatarpur Jabalpur District falls under the Vindhya-Mahakoshal division. For purposes of its activities, the District was divided into Jabalpur city and village areas in the year 1960. The main activities of the Sangh are directed towards the eradication of untouchability and overall advancement of the Scheduled Castes, as also alleviation of the living and working conditions of the sweepers as a class The work programme included activities for educating public opinion against untouchability through joint meetings and functions of Caste Hindus and Scheduled Caste people, attempt to open public temples, wells, taps, hotels, *sarais*, dispensaries, etc., for Harijans and the like. Local bodies are requested to provide cheap housing accommodation for Harijans and modern equipment for the use of sweepers in their work like disposal of night-soil, etc The Sangh receives grants-in-aid from the Directorate of Tribal Welfare and the Directorate of Panchayats and Social Welfare.

The other organisation in the District is the Madhya Pradesh Vanvasi Seva Mandal with its Zonal office at Jabalpur and head-office at Mandla. It is devoted to social, educational, economic and cultural uplift of the tribals and other similar backward communities. It is registered under the Registration of Societies Act, 1860, and is affiliated to the Bharatiya Adimjati Sevak Sangh, New Delhi. This institution was founded by late Thakkar Bapa in 1944, at Mandla. Originally its activities were confined to Mandla district under the name 'Gond Sevak Sangh' and later on it was changed to its present name. In Jabalpur District, the work of the Vanvasi Seva Mandal is spread over all the four tahsils, viz., Jabalpur, Sihora,

Murwara and Patan. The work in the first three tahsils was undertaken in April, 1954, while that in the fourth tahsil was taken up in February, 1957. The Mandla Unit is managing one Higher Secondary, four Middle and 21 Primary schools with its four *Ashrams* at the Middle school centres, on cent-per-cent grants-in-aid basis from the State Government. In Jabalpur tahsil there is one Middle school and one *Ashram* at Imalai, besides five Primary schools at Touri Bar, Bairagi, Rampuri, Dargarh and Nakatia. Sihora tahsil has one Middle school, an *Ashram* and five Primary schools at Bandh Sagona, Jiri, Ataria, Gopalpur and Bhargawan. At Vilayat Kalan in Murwara tahsil there are five Primary schools, one Middle school and an *Ashram* functioning, besides the Bapu Vanvasi Seva Mandal Higher Secondary School. So far as Patan tahsil is concerned, it has one Middle School and an *Ashram* at Gangai Bijori and Primary schools at Gangai Bijori, Nichi, Urran, Bijna, Sukha, Jhinna and Chirapondi. In the month of December, 1962, there were 46 Tribal, 28 Harijan and 1 Other Backward Classes students in the Higher Secondary School; 134 Tribal, 13 Harijan and 72 Other Backward Classes students in the Middle schools; and 571 Tribal, 44 Harijan and 293 Other Backward Classes students in the Primary schools managed by the Mandal. In all, in the four *Ashrams*, there were 120 inmates. Every school is a centre of spreading literacy among the adults and women, distribution of free medicines, preaching prohibition, organising co-operatives, scouting and spreading the messages of Bharat Sevak Samaj, cultural uplift through folk-dances and folk-songs and promoting *Gramodyog* and agriculture. All these activities are intensified at the Middle school centres, where the *Ashram* of the Mandal for 30 students are run on Gandhian ways.

Besides educational advancement, the Mandal has sponsored three Multi-purpose co-operative societies, one each at villages Imlai, Jhinnapiparia and Vilayat kalan.

PUBLIC TRUSTS

Before the introduction of Madhya Pradesh Public Trust Act, 1951, regulation and supervision of the working of different Public Trusts were being carried on under different enactments like the Charitable and Religious Trust Act, the Indian Trust Act, the Indian Trustees Act, etc. Under the Public Trust Act, 1951, however, the Deputy Commissioner was the Registrar of Public Trusts. All the funds belonging to a Trust are kept by them in the Scheduled Banks, Post office or in any bank registered under the Co-operative Societies Act, 1912, or with any banker, with the approval of the Registrar, provided the banker has given security for the safe custody of the money to the Registrar.

On 31st December, 1962, there were 280 public trusts, registered under the Madhya Pradesh Public Trust Act, 1951. Of these 187 trusts were in Jabalpur tahsil, 36 in Murwara tahsil, 32 in Patan tahsil and 25 in Sihora tahsil. The total number of purely religious trusts was 226, out of 280 in the District. As regards trusts intended for other purposes, Jabalpur tahsil shared 40, Sihora 1, Murwara 12 and Patan 1. The total number of public trusts as stated above also included 69 *Wakfs*. Out of 69 *Wakfs*, 63 *Wakfs* were purely religious, 5 educational and 1 for running a *dharamshala*. The activities of some important public trusts, which have rendered significant social service in the District deserve mention here.

1. Fakirchand-ka-Akhada Trust Fund, Kotwali, Jabalpur—One Fakirchand Ustad owned an *Akhada* and a temple in which the idol of Shri Thakurji Mahadevaji was installed by him about a hundred years ago. On 8th July, 1908, a trust for public purposes was created by Hazarilal, brother of Ustad Fakirchand, under a registered will, which was of religious and beneficial character. At the time of its registration under the Madhya Pradesh Public Trusts Act, 1951, the value of its property was about Rs. 55,000. The annual income accruing out of the trust fund is worth Rs. 2,400 which is utilized for the maintenance of the temple.

2. The Anjuman Islamia Trust, Jabalpur.—On 16th September, 1876, the Anjuman Islamia Trusts, Jabalpur, was established as a charitable public trust and was registered under the Societies Registration Act, No. XXI of 1860, in the year 1902. It has also been registered under the Madhya Pradesh Public Trust Act, 1951. It is humanitarian in out look and includes in its aims and objects education of children without any distinction of caste or creed, promotion of the morals and character of the rising generation, rendering help to Government functionaries in all public affairs if they so desire, looking after Muslim orphans in their education and livelihood, and burial for the dead bodies of destitute Muslims. The Islamia Trust owns several buildings in Jabalpur city as well as a house and four or five tanks, besides about 20 acres of waste land in Sihora village. Thus it makes a total property valued at Rs. 20 to 25 lakhs. It also had a large printing press, which was closed in the year 1957. The Anjuman Islamia has been running various educational institutions, *viz*., R. Anjuman Islamia Higher Secondary School, Jabalpur; Anjuman Islamia Indian English Middle School at Jabalpur Cantonment; Anjuman Islamia Indian Middle School at Mohalla Gohalpur, Jabalpur and Anjuman Islamia Urdu Primary School for boys at Jabalpur Cantonment. In addition, it has also

been running Anjuman Islamia Religious Seminaries at six Mohallas in Jabalpur city, viz., Gorakhpur, Gohalpur, Mansoorabad, Bhantalayia, Peshkari and Chhoti-Omti, besides two others at Sihora and Udaipura villages in the District. At present there are about 700 students on roll in the Higher Secondary school, over 300 students in the Middle schools and about 100 students in the Primary school. The Anjuman Islamia extends education facilities without any distinction of caste, creed or nationality. The Trust spends about Rs. 90,000 annually towards education.

3. **Sawai Singhai Dalchand Narayandas Jain Boarding House Trust, Jabalpur**.—On 17th June, 1913' the D. N. Jain Boarding House was established at the will of S. S. Narayandas, executed by his widows M/s Maharani and Shrimati Sukharani through their adopted son S. S. Munnilal. It owns from the very inception a building with about four acres of land. In addition to this, the Trust owns about eighteen bungalows in the vicinity. Out of the income accruing from the Trust property, a Middle school for boys was started, which was later raised to the status of a High School in 1943. In 1949, a college of Arts and Commerce, called the D. N. College of Arts and Commerce, was also started at Jabalpur. The present stength of students in the D. N. Higher Secondary School is about 1,000 and that in the College about 1,200. The number of boarders is about 20. At the time of its registration under the Madhya Pradesh Public Trust Act, 1951, the trust property was of the value of Rs. 1,96,000.

4. **Daccani Muslim Musafir Khana Trust, Jabalpur**.—With the object of providing lodging facilities to visitors without distinction of religion and nationality, meeting the expenses of the mosques having no income of their own, helping financially the needy, and starting a girls school to be gradually raised to a High School, the Daccani Muslim Musafir Khana Trust, Jabalpur, was established with an initial amount of Rs. 15,000 in the year 1919. At present, out of the income of the trust property a Muslim Musafirkhana is being managed at Ghantaghar, Jabalpur. The Trust has movable property worth about Rs. 2,000 and buildings of about Rs. 1,00,000.

5. **The Oka Chairty Trust Fund, Jabalpur**.—The Trust was founded on 16th December, 1935, mainly with a view to helping poor and deserving students of all castes, communities and creeds in obtaining education, and providing schools, colleges and hostels with their adjuncts, if necessary, such as, laboratories, workshops, libraries, gymnasium, etc. Property of the Trust at the time of establishment was of the value of Rs. 12,000. The estimated value of the Trust Fund is about Rs., 1,16,190.

6. **Shrimati Kashibai Digambar Jain Aushadhalaya, Trust, Lordgunj, Jabalpur.**—On 11th July 1945 Shrimati Kashibai created the Shrimati Kashibai Digambar Jain Aushadhalaya Trust with a property of the value of about Rs. 47,000 for providing free *Ayurvedic* medicines to poor patients. About 10,000 patients are annually treated in this *Ayurvedic Aushadhalaya*. The present value of the Trust property is about Rs 51,854.

7. **Mahakoshal Shaheed Smarak Trust, Gol Bazar, Jabalpur.**—The Mahakoshal Congress Committee in its resolution of October, 21, 1945, resolved to commemorate the deeds of the martyrs by raising a memorial monument. A Martyrs' Memorial Trust was constituted on 3rd August, 1947. The object of the Trust was to establish an Institute of Indian Culture and Social Research. The Institute perpetuates the great ideal of human freedom for which the martyrs lived and died. A sum of about two million rupees was collected in the form of donations from the people, the Government and the Jabalpur Corporation. The foundation stone of the building was laid by the late Dr. Rajendra Prasad on 28th October. 1948 The Memorial is a magnificent structure having a big auditorium and a number of spacious halls. The auditorium is decorated with fiesco painting. On 26th April. 1956, the Shaheed Smarak was opened by our late Prime Minister Jawaharlal Nehru. At the time of registration of this Trust under the Madhya Pradesh Public Trust Act, 1951, the total amount of investment towards this Trust was Rs. 87,28,298.

8. **Govindram Seksariya College of Commerce and Economics Trust, Jabalpur**—To meet the pressing need of higher education in Commerce of the Mahakoshal area, the Govindram Seksaria College of Commerce, Jabalpur, was started in July 1948, by the Marwari Shiksha Mandal, Wardha. For the establishment of this College, funds were donated by the Seksaria Charitable Trust, founded by the late Govindram Seksaria, a business magnate of Bombay, after whom the College is named. At the time of its registration under the Madhya Pradesh Public Trust Act, 1951, the amount of investment was of the order of Rs. 1,07,171. The College made rapid progress since its inception and it is the premier institution in Mahakoshal imparting higher education in Commerce and Economics up to the Post-graduate standard. It has become a centre for higher learning and research work in Economics and Commercial subjects. During the academic session of 1948-49 the College had on its roll only 82 students, which rose to 1,142 in 1961-62.

9. **Seth Manoolal Jagannathdas Hospital Trust, Jabalpur.**—On 14th July 1952, Seth Jagannathdas established the Seth Manoolal Jagannathdas Hospital Trust, Jabalpur, in order to provide medical help to women and children. At the time of its registration under the Madhya Pradesh Public Trust Act, 1951, the value of its property was worth Rs. 7,91,000. Out of the income accruing from the Trust property an outdoor department for free medical treatment of patients was started on 2nd May 1957, in one of the buildings of the Trust at Miloniganj, Jabalpur. From the date of its starting up to 31st December 1962, medical treatment has been provided to about one lakh patients. Besides others, the staff of the Hospital includes one M.B.B.S. Doctor and three Compounders

In addition to above, out of the income of the Trust property a hospital building was constructed at an estimated cost of Rs. 2½ lakhs at village Natwara in Patan tahsil during the year 1959-60. It was transferred to the State Government in 1961, for opening a Rural Health Demonstration Centre. The rural population of this area is being benefited by this centre.

10. **Shrimati Mankunwar Bai Trust Fund, Jabalpur**—On 11th August 1953, Shrimati Mankunwar Bai, wife of Seth Shrikrishnadas of Jabalpur created the Shrimati Mankunwar Bai Trust Fund with investment of Rs. 3,30,000 for running a school and a hospital for children. Under this Trust, an Arts college for girls, named as the Mankunwar Bai Arts College for Women, was started in July 1954, but an year later, in July 1955, this institution was taken over by the State Government and merged in the M. H. College of Home Science for Women at Jabalpur. In the year 1956, the Trustees and the author of the Trust, *viz.*, Shrimati Mankunwar Bai jointly desired that the whole of the Trust property, both movable and immovable, be vested in the Treasurer of Charitable Endowments for Madhya Pradesh for the advancement of education of women and their general welfare. Accordingly, on their joint application the State Government directed in October 1956, that the Trust property shall vest in the State Treasurer of Charitable Endowments. Out of the income accruing from the Trust Fund, the Committee sanctioned Rs. 3,000 in 1960 for awarding 20 stipends of Rs. 15 each per month to girl students of Mankunwar Bai Arts College, Rs. 15,690.67 in 1961 for constructing a gymnasium for college girls, 40 stipends to girl students and for a shed; and Rs. 8,590 in 1962 for awarding 34 stipends and for a gymnasium.

There are other Trusts also in the District, of which those devoted to edurational purposes, predominate.

CHARITABLE ENDOWMENTS

The last decade of the 19th century saw the establishment of two endowments in the District, *viz*., the Ghantaiya Memorial Prize Fund in 1892 and the Govindrao Gopal Endowment Fund in 1897. The former awards a First Prize of the value of Rs. 16 to a student securing the highest total mark in the Intermediate Arts Examination and a second Prize of Rs 12 to a High School student securing the highest mark in English. Awards are made from the income accruing on the initial investment of Rs. 900. The Principal, Mahakoshal Mahavidyalaya, Jabalpur, is the Administrator of this Endowment.

The Govindrao Gopal Endowment Fund was created by Gopal Rao, a retired Extra Assistant Commissioner, in the year 1897, with an initial investment of Rs 16,000. Out of this fund three scholarships were given to the Middle school students of Jabalpur and Sagar districts. Two of these scholarships were of Rs. 3·50 each while the third one was of Rs. 3 94. Scholarships were given to students having no means of support Besides these, two scholarships of the value of Rs. 10·94 were allotted for studies in Sanskrit College, Banaras and for study in Vedas in Sanskrit College, Calcutta. An annual amount of Rs. 131·25 was earmarked for charities to be given through the Hitkarini Sabha, Jabalpur, and Hit Sabha, Sagar, A sum of Rs. 35 was also given to provide comforts to patients in the dispensaries at Jabalpur and Sagar. Some changes were made in the rates of scholarships later, as amounts allotted for scholarships for studies in Vedas and Sanskrit remained unutilized. The sum of Rs. 131·25 towards charity to the poor was also dropped. Currently the rate of scholarships for three Middle school students is Rs. 5 each and for Sanskrit studies in Vedas Rs. 15 each. Amounts to be spent on comforts of patients in the hospitals at Jabalpur and Sagar are Rs. 100 and Rs. 80, respectively. The current value of investments in this Endowment Fund is Rs. 25,600.

Deonath Dutt Gold Medal Fund was founded by Babu Jadunath Dutt of Hoshangabad in the year 1901, on a donation of Rs. 2,100. A gold medal of the value of Rs. 63 is given annually to a regular student of Mahakoshal Mahavidyalaya, Jabalpur, obtaining highest number of marks in B. Sc., Examination. The Fund is administered by the Principal of Mahavidyalaya.

In the subsequent year, i.e., 1902, the Chandra Kumar Chaterjee Good Conduct Medal Fund was founded. A silver medal is awarded on the result of election by students and on the approval of the Principal, Mahakoshal Mahavidyalaya, who is its Administrator. Initial investment for purposes of this endowment was Rs. 700.

In 1910, the H. A. Crump Scholarship Fund was established by the widowed Rani of late Raja Gokuldas with an investment of Rs. Rs. 6,500. It provided two scholarships: one of the value of Rs. 8 to 10 per month to a lady student undergoing training in Midwifery at the Lady Elgin Hospital, Jabalpur, and another of Rs. 6.50 per month to a lady student studying in the Normal School for Women at Jabalpur. The undisbursed amount of scholarships for training in Mid-wifery totalling to about Rs 3,300 was later utilized for the construction of a Crump Ward in the Lady Elgin Hospital. The amount of scholarship for the lady trainee in the Normal School was raised to Rs. 8.50 p.m.

The Lakshmi Bai Scholarship Fund was established in the year 1911, with an initial investment of Rs. 2,100. Scholarship of Rs. 6 per month is given to a poor Maratha (Kshatriya) student on the result of the High School Entrance Scholarship Examination. This scholarship is tenable for a period of three years in the first instance for studies in any recognized High School. Under certain conditions the period is extended by one year more. The District Educational Officer, Jabalpur, is the Administrator of the Fund.

In the year 1915, two Endowment Funds were instituted, one known as Stanyon Medal for Music and the other K. C. Dutt Memorial Prize. Under the first endowment a gold or silver medal or books on music are given to a boy or a girl student of Christ Church Boys or Girls School each year in rotation for having attained highest proficiency in music.

The K. C. Dutt Memorial Fund makes an annual award of Rs. 60 to a student of Mahakoshal Mahavidyalaya passing Intermediate Arts Examination and obtaining highest number of marks in Sanskrit from amongst the successful candidates.

In addition, there are 19 other endowments in the District, all of which are in the educational sphere, giving prizes, medals, scholarships, etc. Details regarding these endowments are given in Appendix.

Government Money Grants to Religious Charitable and Public institutions.—There are three religious institutions in the District for which Government have sanctioned annual money grants for the maintenance, upkeep, programme of religious rites and festivals, etc., under the Central Provinces and Berar Revocation of Land Revenue Exemptions Act, 1948.

(i) The Raja Thakur Prayagdas of Bijairaghogarh, tahsil Katni, attached 184.65 acres of land having Rs. 47.50 as land revenue for the worship, maintenance and upkeep of the temple, and the legitimate application of the income from the property so attached for the benefit of the public at large.

(ii) The *muafi* plots of village Tewar, tahsil Jabalpur (area 19.82 acres, land revenue Rs. 54) were granted for the support of *puja* and maintenance of the temple of Shri Jagannathji and its premises in a good condition and to perform and celebrate the customary worship and festivals at Chokital.

(iii) Two villages, Kunda and Badanpur, and *muafi* plots of Kochpura, tahsil Jabalpur, with a total land revenue of Rs. 691.25 were granted for the maintenance and upkeep of the shrine, *Dargah* of Piran Pir Dastgir Roshan Zamir near Madan Mahal, its premises in a good condition, the *Yadgar* of Kopurbaba near Madan Mahal for holding an annual *Urs* and celebrating the customary worship. The shrine has got local importance.

CHAPTER XVIII

PUBLIC LIFE AND VOLUNTARY SOCIAL SERVICE ORGANISATIONS

The representation of Jabalpur District in the Union Legislature dates back to the year 1909, when the entire Central Provinces returned two members to represent it in the Imperial Legislative Council. Of these, one was elected by the district councils and municipalities of the Province and the other by the landholders. Jabalpur District selected 6 delegates— three from the district councils and three from the municipal committees—to vote for the election of the former and four delegates to elect the latter. This procedure of election was modified on the establishment of the Legislative Council for the Central Provinces in 1914. From that year, the member, who hitherto was elected by the district councils and the municipalities, came to be elected by the non-official members of the Legislative Council

This arrangement continued till 1920, when the Province returned one member to the Council of State and five members to the Indian Legislative Assembly. Berar separately returned one member each to these bodies. Jabalpur District formed only a part of the wider constituencies to elect representatives to both the Houses at the Centre. In the first elections to the Indian Legislative Assembly, of the five elected members, one belonged to Jabalpur. This position remained the same since the Federal part of the scheme of the Government of India Act, 1935 did not come into force. It is interesting to note that Jabalpur has now (1967) the honour of being the home-town and constituency of the oldest parliamentarian in the country. Having been elected to the Indian Parliament for the first time in 1923, Seth Govind Das continued to be returned in every subsequent election.

Following the inauguration of the Republican Constitution in 1950, the delimitation of the constituencies took place and Jabalpur District came to form, for the first time, a substantial part of the parlimentary constituency. Thus in the General Elections of 1951-52, Jabalpur District was covered under the double-member Mandla-Jabalpur South and single-member Jabalpur North constituency. As a result of the delimitation of constituencies, the District in 1957 General Elections, was covered under three constituencies, namely, the double-member Sagar, single-member Jabalpur and single-member Mandla Constituency.

In pursuance of the Two-Member Constituencies (Abolition) Act, 1961, the double-member Sagar constituency was abolished and instead two single-member constituencies, viz., Sagar and Damoh were created. The latter was a reserved seat for the Scheduled Castes and covering parts of Patan, Sihora and Murwara tahsils of Jabalpur District.

Representation in the State Legislature

The Central Provinces Legislative Council came into being in 1914, the first meeting of which was held on 17th August 1914. Seven members of this Council were elected—three by the municipal committees, two by the district councils and two by land-holders—in the Central Provinces, three were nominated after elections in Berar, while 15 were nominated by the Chief Commissioner. Two of the seven elected members in the Central Provinces were from Jabalpur District. This position continued till the inauguration of the Government of India Act, 1919 in the Province on 17th December 1920, when it was raised to the status of a Governor's Province.

The strength of the Reformed Legislative Council, which came into being in January 1921, was fixed at 70, of which 36 were elected members from the Central Provinces, 17 were persons nominated as a result of elections held in Berar and who were deemed to be elected members of the Central Provinces Legislative Council; and the remaining were nominated officials and non-officials. Besides, the Governor could nominate two persons, as experts, for the purpose of any bill, introduced or proposed to be introduced before the Council

As far as Jabalpur District was concerned, it was represented in the Legislative Council through four non-Muhammadan constituencies, namely, Jabalpur city (Urban), and Jabalpur Division (Urban), Jabalpur District South (Rural) and Jabalpur District North (Rural); one Muhammadan constituency, viz., Jabalpur Division (Rural); and Jabalpur and Narmada land-holders constituency. An idea as to how much limited was the franchise during this period can be had from the fact that in the elections of 1920 the total electorate in the Province was 1,44,737, of whom only 11,566 cast their votes.

When the Government of India Act of 1935 came into force and the elections were held in 1937, the number of seats in the Central Provinces and Berar Legislative Assembly was raised to 112. The noteworthy change that occured under the new Act was that the system of nomination was done away with and the Assembly became a wholly elected body. In so far as Jabalpur District was concerned, the representation in the Assembly was through Jabalpur

constituency which was reserved for a woman candidate; Jabalpur City (General—Urban), Jabalpur—Sagar—Seoni (General—Urban); Jabalpur—Patan (General—Rural); Sihora and Murwara (both General—Rural); Jabalpur—Mandla (Muhammadan—Rural); and Central Provinces Northern Land-holders and Factory Labour constituency. In addition to these nine constituencies, Jabalpur was part of a wider constituency, comprising the whole of Central Provinces and Berar, returning an Anglo-Indian and European candidate to the Assembly; while with the Central Provinces alone, it elected a representative of Commerce and Industry. At that time, the total number of voters in the Province, was 17,41,364, of whom over 50 per cent cast their votes.

The Legislature, elected in April 1937, however, could not carry on any activity due to the resignation of the Ministry in 1939, although technically it continued its existence through inter-war years till its final dissolution in 1945. In the general elections, completed in 1946, representation of the District remained the same as in 1937.

It was in 1951-52 that major changes occurred in the delimitation of constituencies, when Jabalpur District was exclusively covered by ten constituencies, viz., Bijairaghogarh, Rithi, Murwara, Sleemanabad, Sihora, Majholi-Panagar, Khamaria, Patan, Jabalpur II, and Jabalpur I. The last of these was a double-member constituency, returning a Scheduled Caste candidate as well. Thus in all 11 candidates were sent by the District to the pronvincial legislature.

Some changes, made in the elections of 1957, once again affected the size of the constituencies and their number. Thus although the number of constituencies in the District was reduced to nine, namely, Bijairaghogarh, Sihora, Patan, Murwara, Panagar, Bargi, Jabalpur I, Jabalpur II and Jabalpur III, the total number of representatives was increased to 12. The first three of these were double-member constituencies. Again, while in Bijairaghogarh and Sihora one of the two seats each was reserved for the Scheduled Tribes, in Patan reservation was for the Scheduled Castes.

In pursuance of the Two-member Constituencies (Abolition) Act, 1961, the double member constituencies of Bijairaghogarh, Sihora and Patan were split up into Bijairaghogarh and Badwara; Sihora and Dhimerkheda; and Patan and Bahoriband, respectively. Of these, Badwara and Dhimerkheda were reserved for the Scheduled Tribes while Patan was reserved for the Scheduled Castes. Thus, though the number of constituencies was increased from nine to

twelve in 1962 elections, there was no corresponding increase in the number of representatives over the 1957 figure. Just as in the case of Parliament, the District had the honour to return the oldest legislator, K. P. Pande, in 1962 elections to the Madhya Pradesh Vidhan Sabha. Elected first in 1922, K. P. Pande has been re-elected ever since.

Political Parties

All the important political parties of the country have their branches in the District. A brief description of the comparative strength of these parties, as evidenced by their performance in elections, is given below. For the sake of completeness, a similar narrative of some other political parties which, although no longer in existence, have left their mark on the public life of the District has also been given.

Congress

Although a group of enthusiastic persons began associating themselves, as stated in the chapter on History, with the activities of the Indian National Congress at the turn of this century, it was only in February 1920 that the Jabalpur District Congress Committee was formally organised. It has been dominating the political scene in the District ever since its inception.

In the elections of 1937, the Congress won every seat in the District except in Jabalpur-Mandla (Muhammadan—Rural) constituency. In the elections of 1946, as in 1937, the Congress captured all the seats except the one mentioned above. In the first General Elections in free India, in 1951-52, the party put up candidates for all the three parliamentary constituencies and came out victorious in all of them. It also contested all the 11 seats for the Vidhan Sabha (Legislative Assembly) and swept the polls. In all, it polled 54 per cent of the valid votes cast in the District. The Congress maintained its position intact in 1957, so far as elections to the Lok Sabha were concerned. Of the three constituencies covering the District, its candidates captured both the seats in Sagar parliamentary constituency and the Jabalpur single-member constituency seat. From the fourth seat, i.e., the Mandla single-member constituency, its candidate was returned uncontested. In the elections for the Vidhan Sabha the Congress candidate was elected uncontested from Panagar seat and, of the remaining 11 seats, it lost only in Murwara.

In the 1962 General Elections for the Lok Sabha, the Congress repeated its performance in all the three parliamentary constituencies. Its candidates won all the three seats, and polled 41.64 per cent of valid votes polled in Mandla, 53.69 per cent in Jabalpur and 41.73 per cent in Damoh constituency. For the Vidhan Sabha, out of 12 seats in the District two were lost. The Congress lost some ground, for its percentage of valid votes declined from 53.81 in 1957 to 46.93 in 1962.

The Congress has a pyramidical structure with Mandal Congress Committees at the base and the All India Congress Committee at the top with the city, tahsil, district and the Provincial Committees, in between. The Jabalpur District Congress Committee has under it, 40 Mandal Congress Committees. Of these, 16 are in Jabalpur city, functioning under the City Congress Committee.

Communist Party.

A nucleus of the Communist Party was formed in the District in the late 'thirties. A group of young men drawn to the ideals of Communism helped organising a body, named "League against Fascism and War" at Jabalpur in the year 1937. Nothing much was known about this party till 1946 when it contested one Labour seat at Jabalpur and lost it. In 1951-52, the Communist Party again contested one seat from Jabalpur I constituency but lost it, having polled only 0.5 per cent of the valid votes. In 1957, it set up a candidate from Jabalpur III constituency and lost it. This time is polled 21.34 per cent of the valid votes cast in that constituency. In the General Elections of 1962, the party contested two seats for the Vidhan Sabha from Jabalpur I and Jabalpur III constituencies but lost both the seats, having polled 7.91 per cent and 13.78 per cent valid votes, respectively. Besides the district branch with headquarters at Jabalpur, there are two other units functioning at Sihora and Katni towns. It did not, so far, contest elections for any of the Lok Sabha seats in Jabalpur District.

Congress Socialist Party

Although a few young men in Jabalpur were associated with the establishment of the Congress Socialist Party when the first session of that body was held at Bombay, in 1934, it was only four years later that a district branch of the party was organised in Jabalpur. In the beginning, there were only 150 members on its roll, and it was not a political party in the strict sense of the term, but a group working inside the Congress. It continued as such till 1945 when the Congress Socialist Party broke away from the

Congress and organised itself as a separate political entity. The party dropped the prefix "Congress" from its name and was called the Socialist Party thereafter. Soon after, branches were opened at Sihora, Katni and Patan.

In 1952, it contested elections for all the three parliamentary constituencies and lost all of them. For the Vidhan Sabha, excepting for Bijairaghogarh constituency, the party put up candidates for the remaining 10 seats, but could not win a single seat. It got 47,352 (16.54 per cent) of the valid votes polled in the District.

Kisan Mazdoor Praja Party

A unit of the Kisan Mazdoor Praja Party was established at Jabalpur in the year 1950 and in 1951-52 it contested six seats, *viz*., Bijairaghogarh, Rithi, Murwara, Majholi-Panagar, Patan and Jabalpur I constituency seats for the Vidhan Sabha. It polled 22,521 (7.87 per cent) of valid votes, but lost all the seats. After the elections, the Kisan Mazdoor Praja Party merged with the Socialist Party in 1953, to form a new party—the Praja Socialist Party.

Praja Socialist Party

As stated earlier, a unit of the Praja Socialist Party was established at Jabalpur in 1953. In 1957 General Elections, the party contested two seats, viz., the Sagar double-member constituency (for one seat) and Jabalpur constituency for the Lok Sabha and polled 74,154 (13.13 per cent) and 41,259 (30.54 per cent) valid votes respectively, but lost both the seats. For the Vidhan Sabha, the Praja Socialist Party contested six seats, *i.e.*, both the seats from Sihora, both the seats from Patan, and Jabalpur I and II. but could not win any. It polled 19.98 per cent valid votes cast in the District. In 1962, the party contested only Mandla parliamentary seat, polled 26,161 (22.80 per cent) votes and lost the seat. Much weakened by the split in the party ranks, resulting in the formation of a separate party—the Socialist Party—the Praja Socialist Party did not contest any seat for the Vidhan Sabha from this District in 1962.

Socialist Party (Lohia Group)

Soon after the second General Elections in 1957, a group of Socialist workers, led by Dr. Ram Manohar Lohia, broke away from the Praja Socialist Party and established a separate party, known as Socialist Party. Soonafter, a unit of the party was established in Jabalpur District. In the General Election of 1962, the Socialist Party

contested Jabalpur Parliamentary seat and, having polled 11·22 per cent votes, lost the seat. For the Vidhan Sabha, the Socialist Party contested nine seats and was able to win the Murwara constituency seat. The party got 41,646 (11.55 per cent) of the valid votes polled in the District

The city office of the Socialist Party looks after the work in Jabalpur city. The district office, covering the rural areas of the District, is located at Sihora. Three branches are functioning under the Sihora office at Katni and Sihora towns and Baghraji village.

Bharatiya Jan Sangh

Bharatiya Jan Sangh, comparatively a new political party, was founded at a convention held in Delhi in October 1951. Soonafter, in November of the same year, a unit of the Jan Sangh was established at Jabalpur. Later, units were also formed in every Vidhan Sabha constituency in the District. In the 1951-52 General Elections, the Jan Sangh contested only Jabalpur-North seat for the Lok Sabha, but lost it, having polled 27,433 (15·5 per cent) valid votes. For the Vidhan Sabha, it contested eight seats, *viz;* Bijairaghogarh, Murwara, Sleemanabad, Sihora, Majholi-Panagar, Khamaria, and Jabalpur I and Jabalpur II, but could not win any. It, however, managed to poll 5·42 per cent of valid votes cast in all the constituencies of the District.

In the General Elections of 1957, the Jan Sangh contested both the seats from the double-member Sagar constituency and the Jabalpur constituency seat for the Lok Sabha, but lost all the three seats. For the Vidhan Sabha, the Sangh contested six seats *viz.*, Murwara, double-member Bijairaghogarh, Jabalpur I, Jabalpur II and Jabalpur III constituency seats, but lost all of them. This time it polled 8·57 per cent of the valid votes polled in the District.

In 1962, the Jan Sangh contested two seats, *viz.*, Jabalpur and Damoh constituency seats for the Lok Sabha, and polled 49,403 (25·22 per cent) and 49,735 (25·58 per cent) valid votes, respectively, but lost both the seats. For the Vidhan Sabha it contested eleven out of 12 seats, but succeeded in capturing only Bahoriband constituency seat. The Sangh, however, gained much strength during the intervening period. It is evident from the fact that in 1962, it polled 22.1 per cent of valid votes in the District.

Ram Rajya Parishad

The Ram Rajya Parishad in Jabalpur District originated from a religious organisation called the Dharm Sangh, established in 1944. The Parishad contested only one seat in 1951-52 from the double-member Mandla-Jabalpur south constituency for the Lok Sabha, but lost it, having polled only 23,829 (4.1 per cent) valid votes. It did not contest any seat for the Vidhan Sabha. In the 1957 General Elections, the Ram Rajya Parishad did not set up any candidate for the Lok Sabha. For the Vidhan Sabha it contested two seats, viz., Patan and Jabalpur I, but without success. In the 1962 General Elections the Ram Rajya Parishad unsuccessfully contested Mandla and Jabalpur constituency seats for the Lok Sabha. For the Vidhan Sabha, the Parishad contested seven seats, *viz.*, Jabalpur I, Bargi, Sihora, Dhimerkheda, Bijairaghogarh, Bahoriband and Patan, but did not win any. It polled 5.12 per cent of valid votes in the District.

The provincial office of the Ram Rajya Parishad functioned at Jabalpur from 1948 to 1961. The district office of the Parishad is located at Jabalpur and there are units in every Vidhan Sabha constituency. The branches of the Parishad are also located at Sihora, Katni and Patan.

Scheduled Caste Federation

A unit of the Scheduled Caste Federation was established in the District in 1948. It contested only one seat for the Vidhan Sabha in the 1951-52 elections, but could not get more than one per cent of the valid votes polled. In the General Elections of 1957, it again put up candidates for Jabalpur II and Jabalpur III constituencies, but did not show any improvement on its previous performance. The Federation did not contest any parliamentary seat either in 1951-52 or in 1957 general elections.

Republican Party.

After the second General Elections, the Scheduled Caste Federation was rechristened as the Republican Party, a district branch of which was established at Jabalpur in 1958. The Republican Party contested Damoh parliamentary seat in 1962, but lost it. It did not contest any seat for Vidhan Sabha from the District.

Muslim League

A district branch and a town branch of the Muslim League were established at Jabalpur in 1921. After about a decade was

founded the Muslim Youth League to awaken political consciousness amongst the Muslim youth. This was followed by the establishment of branches of the League at Katni in 1936 and in Cantonment (Jabalpur) and at Sihora in 1938. An year later was established the Muslim National Guard—a volunteers' organisation. In the elections of 1937, Jabalpur-Mandla Mohammadan Rural constituency returned a Muslim League candidate to the provincial legislature. In the elections of 1946, the candidate of the League was once again returned from that constituency. The League faded away with the dawn of Independence.

The following table provides the number of seats in Union and State Legislatures under which the District was covered, number of electors, total number of valid votes polled, number of contesting candidates, seats won and the number of valid votes polled by various parties at the General Elections of 1951-52, 1957 and 1962 :—

Class of Legislature and year of Elections	(a) Number of seats (b) No. of Electors (c) Total No. of Valid votes polled.	(a) No. of contestants (b) No. of seats won (c) No. of valid votes polled by					
		Congress	P.S.P.	R.R.P.	J.S.	Independents and others	Socialist
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)	(8)
Lok Sabha —							
1951-52	(a) 3	3	..	1	1	2	3
	(b) 10,35'760	3	..	..	..	..	..
	(c) 7,70,256	4,72,960	..	23,829	27,433	92,816	1,53,218
1957	(a) 1	1	1	..	1	..	..
	(b) 3,56,417	1	..	..	..	..	..
	(c) 1,44,898	85,212	44,259	..	15,427	..	..
1962	(a) 1	1	..	1	1	..	..
	(b) 3,96,079	1	..	..	..	..	—
	(c) 1,95,895	1,05,185	..	9,618	49,403	..	21,913
			K. M.P.P.				
Vidhan Sabha 1951-52	(a) 11	11	6	..	8	26	10
	(b) 5,33,624	11	..	..	..	—	—
	(c) 2,86,286	1,54,592	22,521		15,517	45,850	83,352
1957	(a) 12	12	6	2	6	15	—
	(b) 5,13,333	11	..	..	..	1	—
	(c) 3,03,084	1,63,121	60,566	4,443	25,966	49,027	—
1962	(a) 12	12	..	7	11	9	9
	(b) 5,93,743	10	..	..	1	..	1
	(c) 2,86,194	1,34,319,	..	14,649	63,253	26,524	41,646

NEWS PAPERS

Jabalpur has not only been the nerve-centre of freedom movement in the Mahakoshal region but also an important place so far as cultural, social and literary activities are concerned. It, therefore, inevitably became the most prominent publishing centre in the region. The beginning of journalism in the District can be traced back to 1868-69, when an English bi-weekly was started. The name of this bi-weekly which continued upto 1874, is not known. This was followed by the publication of a weekly of railwaymen, the *Indian Railway Service Gazette,* a bilingual monthly in Hindi and English, named, the *Jabalpur Samachar,* in 1837, and a monthly, the *Masonic Record of Western India,* in 1877. It is interesting to note that the *Jabalpur Samachar* was printed at Banaras, published from Jabalpur and its editor Krishnarao lived at Hoshangabad. A Hindi weekly of note, the *Shubh-Chintak,* started publication in 1883 from the Shubh Chintak Press, Jabalpur, under the editorship of Sitaram. In 1891 appeared the *Shubh Chintak,* a Hindi fortnightly, the first of its kind in the District, under the editorship of Ramgulam Awasthi. Then followed the *Saraswati Vilas,* a monthly in Hindi, in 1885; the *Cetral India News,* an English weekly, in 1886, which changed its name to the *Central India Observer,* in 1889-90, but soon ceased publication; the *Victoria Sewak,* a Hindi fortnightly, in 1887; the *Praja Hitaishi,* a Hindi monthly, in 1889; the *Tubliq,* a Urdu weekly, in 1893; the *Jabalpur Times,* an English weekly, in 1894, which was converted into a tri-weekly in 1897; the *Nyaya Ratan,* a bilingual weekly in Hindi and English, in 1895; a bi-weekly called the *Commercial Advertiser,* in 1897; the *Christian Sewak,* a weekly, serving the interest of the Christian community and a Hindi monthly named the *Kavya Sudha Nidhi* in 1899. All these were from Jabalpur.

In the first decade of the twentieth century a number of journals appeared on the scene. The first to start publication were the *Arya Samaj* and the *Arya Vanita,* a weekly, in 1902. Simultaneously, appeared a number of weeklies, serving the interest of the Christian community. Of these the *Primary Sunday School ke Path,* a Hindi weekly, appeared in 1904 and had a long life, for it continued upto 1952. The same year appeared the *Primary Sunday School Leaflet* which ceased publication in 1947 and the *International Sunday School Leaflet.* Another weekly was the *Christian Sahayak,* which appeared under the editorship of Rev. B. Alexander in 1905. These were followed, in 1909, by two quarterlies, both in Hindi, namely, *Tarun Striyon Ki Masihi Sabha Ka Traimasik Patra* and the *Sunday*

School Ki Traimasik Patrika, and a weekly, the *Sunday School Ke Path Ka Patra*. An English weekly, named the *Jabalpur Post* and a Hindi weekly, the *Shiksha Prakash*, also appeared in the same year. In 1911 the *Shiksha Prakash*, edited by Raghubar Prasad Dwivedi, was changed into the *Hitkarini Patrika*, a monthly Hindi magazine, owned by the Hitakarini Sabha. It was the most important Hindi journal published in the District during that period, and it continued to make a significant contribution to the cultural and literary life of the District for over a decade. It attained a circulation of 2,450 copies, a record in that period. The Government of the day did not view the magazine with favour during the days of the Non-Co-operation Movement and, therefore, it ceased publication in 1921-22 Later it reappeared and continued to be published as an annual number.

Among other important journals which made their appearance during the decade, ending 1920, were the *Jyoti Kiran*, a Hindi weekly, in 1914, devoted to the publicity of the missionary activities; the *Sharada Vinod*, a Hindi monthly of high literacy standard, in 1915; and *Sarvodaya*, a Hindi quartely, in 1916. The *Jyoti Kiran* continued up to 1951, when it was converted into a monthly. The *Sharda Vinod* was edited by Narmada Prasad Mishra, who after the stopping of this magazine, took over the editorship of another monthly magazine, *Shri Sharda*, in 1920. The *Sarvodaya* also continued till 1944. An Urdu journal, the *Taj*, started publication from Jabalpur sometime during this period. It ceased publication in 1917-18, appeared again for a short while in 1919-20 and in the following year it reappeared as an Urdu daily and became one of the leading papers of this Province.

The year 1920 was important in the annals of journalism of the Jabalpur District for it saw the publication of the *Karmavir*, a Hindi weekly, which became the mouth-piece of the freedom fighters of the Province. The journal played an important part in giving a new direction and content to the freedom Movement in the Province. It was edited by Makhanlal Chaturvedi. The *Karmvir* shifted its place of publication to Khandwa in 1925. Other journals to appear during the year were the *Deshodaya*, the *Chhatra Sahodar*, whose editor was Matadin Shukla, and the *Swasthya Darpan*.

During the next decade, i.e., from 1920 to 1930, a number of journals were started. A bi weekly, named *Tilak*, was started in 1921. After some time it was converted into a daily. The following year saw the publication of three journals, the *Sahayak Patrika*, the *Ex-Soldier* and the *C. P. Scouts*. Of these, the *Sahayak Patrika* was a

Hindi weekly which served the interest of the Christian missionaries. Four monthlies, *viz.*, the *Omār Vaishya Shubh Chintak*, the *Parwar Bandhu*, the *Shikshan Patrika* and the *Bhanudaya* appeared in 1921, 1923 and 1926 (the last two), respectively. Of these, the first two were devoted to the sectional interest, the third was a literary magazine, while the last one was a missionary journal, meant for the students. The *Ordnance*, a bilingual quarterly in English and Hindi, was started in 1923. Another sectional magazine *Shri Sanadhya* also came into being some time during this period.

The year 1929 was a landmark in the growth of journalism in the District, for that year saw the birth of the first influential Hindi daily at Jabalpur, named the *Lokmat*, under the editorship of Dwarka Prasad Mishra This 16 paged daily played a prominent part in spreading national awakening among the people of the Mahakoshal region and reached a record circulation of 11,000 copies per day. It was forced to cease publication in the month of May 1930, for it refused to furnish the security demanded by the Government. The *Deshbandhu*, a Hindi bi weekly and the *Prema*, a Hindi monthly, were published from Jabalpur in 1930. The latter, edited by Ramanuj Lal Shrivastava, was a magazine of high literary value but, though popular, it could not continue beyond March 1933.

After a gap of about four years, in 1934, two other journals came into being, *viz.*, the *Lok Sawa*, a Hindi monthly, devoted to religion and phiolosphy, which continued, although irregularly, up to 1960 and the *Masihi Mahila*. Among other journals which appeared in the District during the decade were the *Shubh Chintak* in 1937: missionary leaflet, the *Delhi Akhbar*, in 1938 a children's Hindi monthly, the *Mahavir* in 1939; and the *Nursing News*, devoted to the medical subjects in 1940.

The period from 1940 to 1947, i.e., from the inauguration of the Individual Satyagraha to the attainment of Independence, was not such as could have encouraged the growth of a free press. Only a few papers, therefore, appeared during the intervening period. Of these the important were: the *Shakti*, a Hindi weekly, in 1941, which ceased publication in 1952; an English religious quarterly called *Indian Calling*, in 1941; the *Sarathi*, under the editorship of Dwarka Prasad Mishra, and the *Praja Pukar*, both Hindi weeklies, in 1941. Of these, the former ceased publication after six months because of the editor's arrest in the Quit-India Movement, while the latter continued till 1947. The *Jai Hind*, a Hindi daily, was started from Jabalpur by Seth Govind Das on 6th February, 1946 This influential daily, edited by S. S. Sharma, ceased publication on 31st December 1954 and was incorporated in the *Nava-Bharat*, another Hindi daily of the city.

There was a striking growth of journals in the District in the post-independence period. The first to appear was the *Praharee,* a Hindi weekly, under the editorship of Bhawani Prasad Tiwari, on 15th August 1947. Others to start in 1947 were: The *Yugarmbha,* a literary Hindi monthly, edited by Beohar Rejendra Singh; the *Indian Culture,* an English quarterly; the *Rathore Bandhu,* a magazine of Akhil Bhartiya Rathor Kshatriya Maha Sabha; and a children's fortnightly in Hindi, the *Bhagyodaya,* which was later converted into a monthly. Of these, *Yugarmbha* ceased in 1951, the *Indian Culture* in 1960 and the rest, except the *Praharee,* in 1950.

In 1948 were published three Hindi magazines—the *Ushakal,* a weekly, the *Nirbhaya,* a fortnightly and the *Go-Pukar,* a monthly,—and three English journals, *viz*., the *Spark,* the *Teacher's Forum,* and the *North India Field News,* which were weekly, monthly and quarterly, respectively. This was followed by the *Balmitra,* a children's monthly magazine, the *Premi,* a fortnightly and the *Pourush,* a weekly, all in Hindi, in 1949.

The year 1950 was another important year so far as the growth of journalism in Jabalpur District was concerned. Two more Hindi dailies, namely, the *Nava-Bharat* and the *Pradeep,* an evening daily; four Hindi weeklies, *viz.,* the *Bharati,* the *Sandesh* (both published from Katni), the *Chitrajyoti* and the *Dharati:* two Hindi monthlies, the *Pooja,* a literary magazine and the *Chanda,* a childrens' magazine (all from Jabalpur); and the *Catholic Weekly,* a bilingual in English and Hindi, also appeared. After a long gap an Urdu journal, the *Azad Hind,* was started. In the beginning it was published as a tri-weekly, ceased for a while but re-appeared as bi-weekly in 1952 and, later, became a weekly in 1956.

During the quinquennium 1951 to 1955 a host of magazines and newspapers were published in the District, serving varying interests, such as, literature, religion, philosophy, sports, education and films, besides serving sectional interest of particular communities. The largest number of these were monthlies, 21 in all. They were the *Business Forum* (*English*), the *Chitra Gupta Samachar,* the *Kala,* the *Kymore,* the *Mahila* (all in Hindi) and the *Madhya Pradesh Homoeopathic Patrika* (in English and Hindi), all of which were started in 1951. The *Army Educational Corps News Letter* and the *Madhya Pradesh Olympic Association Bulletin* (both in English); the *Mukul* (Hindi) and the *Fanoos* (Urdu) in 1952, the *Ayurved Chikitsak,* the *Vijnan Patrika,* the *Karma Sakti* (all in Hindi); and *Ayodhyawasi Bandhu,* which was published once in two months in 1953; the *Film Kiran,* the *Jeevan,*

the *Mahavir, the Sanmati Sandesh,* the *Yugarambha,* and the *Bhragu* (all in Hindi) in 1954; and the *Maharshi Bharadwaj* (Hindi) in 1955, were yet others.

The second largest number was of the weeklies. Thus, of the 12 weeklies that came out in this period, the *Atom*, the *Gondwana,* the *Prakash,* the *Rajahans,* the *Rashtra Deep,* the *Sahee Baat,* the *Sansani,* the *Janamat* and the *Raj Kamal* (all in Hindi) were started in 1951. The last two were meant for the election propaganga and therefore soon ceased publication. Similar was the fate of three bi-weeklies, the *Chunav-Chakra,* the *Sarathi* and the *Mat-Data* which appeared in 1951 for the afore-said purpose. The *Gondwana,* the *Jwala Mukhi* and the *Jagriti* were three other weeklies of which the first appeared in 1952 and the rest in 1954. The three fortnightlies, *viz.,* the *Madhya Pradesh Law Reporter* (English and Hindi), the *Ordnance Factory Samachar* and the *Vyavasaya Jagat* (both in Hindi, the latter was from Katni), also appeared during this period.

Among the quarterlies published between 1951 and 1955 were the *Adim Jati Sewak,* the *Journal of Tele-Communication Engineering Association,* the *Shivhare Navyuvak* (all Hindi) in 1951, and the *Tele Works Patrika* (English and Hindi) in 1953.

Other Journals published during this period were two dailies, the *Samaj* (evening daily) and the *Ramarajya* in 1951 and 1953, respectively; the *Tele-Communication,* a half-yearly magazine, and four annual magazines, namely, the *Hitakarni,* the *Satyarth,* the *Narmada* and the *Sahu Vaishya Bandhu.* The first three of these were magazines of educational institutions, published in 1952, while the last was devoted to the welfare of the community.

The growth of journalism continued a pace in 1956 and, as before, the largest number of monthlies were published during the year. Their names were: the *Vasudha,* the *Saroj,* the *Anoopam,* the *Abhyudaya* and the *Sadhna.* The *Vasudha,* edited by Rameshwar Prasad Guru and Hari Shankar Parsai, was a magazine of high literary standard. Two influential Hindi dailies, the *Yugadharma* and the *Jabalpur Samachar* (an evening daily); the *Railwayman,* an English weekly from Katni, *Dharti Ki Baten* and the *Dwimasik Bulletin,* both bi-monthlies; the *Nai Zindagi,* a Sindhi quarterly; and the *Sewa,* an annual magazine, also started publication during this year.

During the course of the next two years 17 journals made their appearance. These were: the *Sangharsh,* a daily: the *Bharati,* published from Katni, the *Atom* and the *Sangharsh* (all weeklies); the

Narmadiya, a monthly; and the *Indian Culture*, an English quarterly, appeared in 1957, while the *Hamara Akkbar*, an Urdu bi-weekly; three Hindi weeklies, *viz*., the *Mazdoor Samachar* and the *Jan Satta* from Jabalpur and the *Saptahik Madhya Pradesh* from Katni; three fortnightlies from Jabalpur, namely, the *Students Sputnik* in English and the *Nagar Sandesh* and the *Film* in Hindi; the *Madhya Pradesh Sahakari Samachar*, a monthly; two quarterlies, *viz*., *Devotion* in English and *Sahakari Madhya Pradesh* in Hindi; and the *Shanti Sadhan*, a Marathi half-yearly magazine, appeared in 1958. The following year saw the publication of two more Hindi dailies, namely, the *Nai Duniya* from Jabalpur and the *Madhya Pradesh* from Katni; two English weeklies, *viz*., the *Madhya Pradesh Time and Tide* and the *Sputnik News and Views* from Katni and Jabalpur, respectively; three fortnightlies, *viz*., the *Film Kiran*, and the *Avhan* in Hindi and Marathi, respectively, from Jabalpur and the *Naya Sipahi* in Hindi from Katni; two Hindi monthlies, *viz*., the *Agrawal Sangram* from Katni and the *Sumati Darshan* from Jabalpur; and one English quarterly, the *Vidyut Prakash* from Jabalpur.

Among the journals that started publications in 1960 were: one Hindi monthly the *Su-Samachar Prakashni*; five weeklies, *viz*., the *Devdoot*, the *Bhrashtachar*, the *Nai Awaz*, all in Hindi, the *Time and Tide*, in English from Katni and the *Nava Jawan* in Punjabi which later switched over to Hindi; and one Hindi quarterly named the *Pariwahan Patrika* from Jabalpur. Most of the newspapers and perodicals which had started publication upto 1960 were short-lived. In 1961 certain new additions were made to the 1960 list and a few disappeared.

The following are some of the important newspapers and magazines that were being published in the District during the year 1961:—

Dailies—The *Nava Bharat*, the *Yug Dharma*, the *Madhya Prades* (Katni), the *Nai Duniya*, the *Pradeep*, and the *Jabalpur Samachar*. The last two are evening dailies.

Weeklies—The *Praharee*, the *Atom*, the *Bharati*, the *Satta*, the *Sputnik News and Views*, the *Devdoot*, the *Railwayman*, the *Nava Jawan*, the *Sangharsh*, the *Jabalpur Patrika*, the *Sarvodaya Vani*, the *Jabalpur Times*, the *Saptamik Madhya Pradesh* and the *Lok Sewa*.

Fortnightlies—The *Students Sputnik*, the *Vyavasaya Jagat*, the *Katni Vyapar Sandesh*, the *Film Kiran*, the *Avahan*, the *Nagar Sandesh*, and the *Madhya Pradesh Law Reporter*.

Monthlies—The *Agrawal Sangram*, the *Anoopam*, the *Madhya Pradesh Sahakari Samachar*, the *Masihi Mahila*, the *Sumati Darshan*, the *Su-Samachar Prakashni*, the *Vasudha;* the *Vyavasaya Samachar*, the *Nai Zindagi*, the *Bhragu*, the *Narmadiya*, the *Ayurveda Chikitsak* and the *Gahoi Bandhu*.

Others—The *Ayodhyawasi Bandhu* and the *Vanwasi*, both published once in two months; the *Sahakari Madhya Pradesh*, the *Ordnance*, the *Paniwahan Patrika*, the *Vidyut Prakash*, the *Indian Culture* and the *Sewa*, all of them quarterlies; and the *Tele-Communication*, the *Devotion*, and the *Shanti Sadhan*, all half-yearlies.

There remains little to be said about the local press. The reading public which is concentrated at Jabalpur, Katni, Sihora and Patan still relies for news upon the outside papers which continue to be popular, maintaining a steady circulation. Among the English dailies the *Free Press Journal*, the *Times of India*, the *Indian Express*, the *Hindustan Times*, the *Statesman*, the *Northern India Patrika*, the *Leader*, the *Hitavada*, the *M. P. Chronicle*, the *Nagpur Times*, the *Hindustan Standard*, and the *Hindu* are widely read. As regards Hindi dailies, the *Hindustan*, the *Veer Arjun*, the *Nav Bharat Times*, and the *Bharat* have large circulation. The *Pratap*, the *Milap*, the *Siyasat*, the *Inquilab*, the *Nai Dunia*, and the *Khilafat* cater to Urdu reading public whereas the *Janma Bhoomi* and the *Bombay Samachar* are popular in Gujarati reading circle and the *Hindustan Samachar* among the Sindhis. The Marathi reading public largely depends for its daily news on the *Loka Satta*, the *Nava Shakti* and the *Maratha*, and the Bengali reading public on the *Jugantar* and the *Anand Bazar Patrika*.

VOLUNTARY SOCIAL SERVICE ORGANISATIONS

Jabalpur District has a long tradition of Social Service Organisations, established on a voluntary basis with the object of serving the community in the various spheres of activities. The earliest of these organisations came into being as back as the seventies of the last century.

At present there is a large body of voluntary social service organisations in existence in the District. These could be broadly divided into the following main categories:—

(a) Welfare of Women and Children,

(b) Orphanages,

(c) Advancement of Scheduled Castes and Scheduled Tribes,

(d) Physical Welfare,

(e) Educational Advancement and

(f) Organisation of Community Welfare.

Welfare of Women and Children

1. **Mahila Utkarsh Mandal Co-operative Society.**—This organisation of a cosmopolitan character was founded in 1934 with a view to cultivate the spirit of co-operation among women. Registered in 1939, the Mandal is managing a Co-operative Store in which home made things are sold. It maintains a library for the benefit of its members and occasionally runs embroidery and tailoring classes. It is also managing a Shishu Vihar.

2. **Mahila Harikirtan Samaj.**—In the year 1940, the Mahila Harikirtan Samaj was organised in order to educate and organise the women of Jabalpur city. It is affiliated to the Indian Conference of Social Work. In addition to carrying out social reforms among ladies, the Samaj organises cultural and religious programmes. It is also running a sewing class.

3. **Sutika Griha.**—Sutika Griha, a branch of the Matri Sewa Sangh, Nagpur, was established in 1941. It manages a maternity home, an infants' clinic and a welfare centre where free prenatal and post-natal treatment is given. Besides, it manages 9 social welfare centres in 9 different villages of this District. Each of the centres is run by a trained teacher and a midwife. The staff of the centre renders domiciliary help to patients. The average number of beneficiaries is about 8,000 a year.

4. **Sewa Samaj.**—The Sewa Samaj, a vocational institute for ladies, was established at Jabalpur in 1947. It imparts training to women in the art of sewing, knitting, weaving and music.

5. **Mahila Tailoring Arts and Embroidery College.**—Established in 1953, it imparts training to ladies in vocational arts. It has a paid staff of three workers and an equal number of honorary workers. About 150 ladies are benefited by this college.

6. **Kamala Nehru Nagar Mahila Samaj.**—It was started in 1960 at Jabalpur. It is running tailoring and music classes and a library. The organisation was registered on 14th May 1960.

7. **Bapu Bal Samaj.**—This children's institution, established in the year 1948, is mainly concerned with the character-building of youngones by inculcating Gandhian ideals of fellowship in them. The Bapu Bal Samaj works for the uplifting of the Harijans, besides launching campaigns against smoking and filthy film songs. The Samaj is maintaining a small library and a reading-room. A branch of the Bal Samaj was established at Shankar Shah Nagar, Jabalpur, in 1959. Like its parent body it also carries on children's welfare activities and is maintaining a nursery school. Under its auspices a Mahila Mandal has also come into being.

8. **Jabalpur Corporation Shikshak Sahitya Samiti.**—With a view to producing literature beneficial to children, the Samiti was organised at Jabalpur by the teachers employed in schools run by the Jabalpur Corporation. It has 40 members on its roll, and paid and honorary staff of four each The Samiti is publishing 'Chand', a children's monthly in Hindi.

9. **Gujarati Bal Mandir.**—It was established at Jabalpur in 1956. Children between the age-group of 2½ and 6 years are admitted to the Mandir. It is affiliated to the Gujarati Mandal, Jabalpur. The Bal Mandir has a strength of 120. It is cosmopolitan and has its own building.

10. **Tilak Bal Mandir.**—Functioning at Shrinath-ki-Tallaiya Ward in Jabalpur city, this children's institute was established and registered in 1959. It has 60 children on its roll and is affiliated to the Maharashtra Vachanalaya.

Advancement of Scheduled Castes and Scheduled Tribes

1. **Harijan Sewak Sangh, Jabalpur.**—The Central Provinces Hindi Provincial Branch of the Harijan Sewak Sangh was established in 1932 at Jabalpur. Later, the provincial branch was rechristened as Mahakoshal Harijan Sewak Sangh and was affiliated to the Akhil Bharatiya Harijan Sewak Sangh, Delhi. This position continued up to 1956, when, after the formation of the new Madhya Pradesh, the whole State was divided into two sub-divisions with headquarters at Indore and Chhatarpur. The district of Jabalpur is included in the Chhatarpur division so far as the work for uplift of the Harijans is concerned. The District has been regrouped into two areas; the city forming one division and the entire rural areas of the District another.

The Sangh carries on a relentless struggle against the evil of untouchability and makes all efforts to bring that day nearer when

: Scheduled Castes shall enjoy equal status with the caste Hindus. a result of its efforts more and more schools, temples, wells, hotels d taps are being thrown open for the use of the Harijans. In e city, it is running adult education centres in 9 different wards d is campaigning for better housing accommodation for the rijans.

2. Vanvasi Sewa Mandal—Devoted to the social, educational, nomic and cultural uplift of the tribals and other backward nmunities, the Vanvasi Sewa Mandal started its work in Jabalpur, ora and Murwara tahsils of the District in 1954 Later, in 1957, activities were extended to Patan tahsil as well. It is a branch the Madhya Pradesh Vanvasi Sewa Mandal, founded by the late akkar Bapa in 1944, at Mandla. Originally named as the 'Gond vak Sangh', it was later changed to the present nomenclature. e Vanvasi Sewa Mandal, having branches in all the 16 districts the Mahakoshal region, is affiliated to the Bharatiya Adimjati vak Sangh, New Delhi.

In Jabalpur District the Sangh is managing one Higher Secon- y school, four Middle schools, 21 Primary schools and some iramas. The schools are centres not only for the spread of educa- n but also for the distribution of free medicines, organisation of : co-operatives, propagation of prohibition and promotion of *modhyog* and agriculture. It has, so far, succeeded in organising ee multipurpose co-operative societies in the District.

phanages

1. Shri Raj Kumari Bai Anathalaya, Jabalpur.—It was estab- .ed at Jabalpur in 1921 for providing shelter and education the orphans. Registered in 1955, the Anathalaya is king after on an average about 30 boys and girls per year. This itution is maintained partly through the Government grants, and tly from the grants obtained from the local bodies of the District.

2. Saint Norber's Indian Orphanage, Jabalpur—Established the year 1934, it is carrying on social and educa- ial activities. In 1962, it was looking after 152 orphans. It is a stered institution and is managing a Higher Secondary school l a Primary school. The branch of this orphanage, known as t Paul's Convent, is functioning at Katni.

In addition to two orphanages, three other institutions, namely, Christ Church Boys and Girls Higher Secondary Schools and t Joseph's Convent Girls Higher Secondary School, all in the city, also managing their respective orphanages.

Institutions of Physical Welfare:

1. **Institution of Physical Education.**—With a view to improving the physique of young boys and girls the Institute of Physical Education was established in Jabalpur as far back as in 1890. It was affiliated to Hanuman Vyayam Prasarak Mandal, Amrawati. Now it is not affiliated to any outside body. It is managing an Academy of Indian Games, a Bal Mandir and a Krida Kendra at Jabalpur. This institute was registered in 1946-47.

2. Physique Culture Institute.—It was established at Jabalpur in 1948 for the physical development of the youth. It was registered in 1956-57 and has 125 members on it roll. The Institute provides facilities for gymnastics and the games of tennis and badminton.

3. Gateway to Health, Jabalpur.—Established in 1953 at Jabalpur. this institution imparts training in weight-lifting, body building and athletics. Depending on the season, its membership varies from 50 to 100, from whom a nominal fee is charged. Persons from poor classes are, however, exempted from fees. To make the Institute popular health-shows are often organised. It is affiliated to the Madhya Pradesh Olympic Association.

4. Debendra Bengali Club, Jabalpur—It was established at G. C. F. Estate. Jabalpur, in 1924 for physical and social welfare of youths. It is a registered body and is managing a library, having 1,000 books.

5. The Madhya Pradesh Olympic Association.—This association, formerly known as the C. P and Berar Olympic Association, was established in 1927. Later, in 1952, its name was changed to Madhya Pradesh Olympic Association with headquarters at Jabalpur. It was affiliated to the Indian Olympic Association in 1952. In 1949, the Olympic Associations of Madhya Bharat and Bhopal were merged into the Madhya Pradesh Olympic Association, which now has jurisdiction throughout Madhya Pradesh. There are 12 State Associations of 12 different games, 43 District Olympic Associations, 3 University Associations and 3 Corporation Associations affiliated to it. It receives government grant to the tune of Rs. 56,000 a year for conducting its activities. The association had

the honour of playing host to the XVII National Atheletics and Volley-Ball meet at Jabalpur in 1953, National Wrestling Championship in 1955 and XX National Games of India in 1962.

6. Cricket Clubs, Jabalpur.—There are two cricket clubs at Jabalpur, namely, the Jabalpur Cricket Club and the Jahangirabad Cricket Club formed in 1932 and in 1959, respectively. Both of them are affiliated to the Madhya Pradesh Cricket Association, Indore.

7. Madhya Pradesh Badminton Association.—It was established at Jabalpur in 1946 and was registered in 1953. Affiliated to the Badminton Association of India, it had in 1961-62, 5 District Associations, 2 University Associations and 7 other Badminton Associations in the State affiliated to it.

8. Hockey Association.—The Jabalpur District Hockey Association was the first to be established in the District in the year 1924. It organises five Hockey Tournaments and has a membership of 500 in the District.

The Mahakoshal Hockey Association was formed in 1958 for promoting the game of Hockey in the Mahakoshal region. In all 14 District Hockey Associations, including Jabalpur, and 5 other Hockey Associations are affiliated to it. It conducts every year eight All India Hockey Tournaments at Rajnandgaon, Bilaspur, Khandwa, Raipur, Jabalpur, Seoni, Katni and Damoh.

Mahakoshal Women's Hockey Association is the third Hockey Association, the headquarters of which is at Jabalpur. With a view to promoting the game amongst women, it was established in 1961. The organisation organises training, coaching and exhibition matches in the various parts of Mahakoshal region.

9. Kabbadi Federation of India.—It was established in 1944 at Jabalpur for popularising the game of Kabaddi. The Federation has 19 State and Regional Associations in the country affiliated to it. It organises training camps wherever possible.

10. **National Archery Federation of India**—It was established at Jabalpur in 1955, for popularising the game of archery. It is affiliated to the International Archery Federation and, in turn, has 12 State Associations in the country affiliated to it.

Other Associations—Bai-Ka-Bagicha Club at Jabalpur, Silpshri at Khamaria and Navyuvak Mandal at Garha, are three associations established in the District in 1949, 1952 and 1956, respectively, of which the first two are registered institutes. The first of these is just a centre of social welfare activities. Silpshri imparts training in dancing and music, and is managing a primary school imparting education through Bengali medium.

Shri Shivaji Sewa Samiti, Katni—In order to encourage physical welfare activities this Samiti was established at Katni in 1953. It has 500 members on its roll. The Samiti takes part in the Kumbh Mela at Allahabad.

Akhadas—In addition to the organisations mentioned above, a number of Akhadas are in existence in Jabalpur city for the physical welfare of the people. The well known among these are: Ustad Fakir Chand Ka Akhada near Kotwali, Ustad Sherkhan Ka Akhada at Gohalpur, Ustad Buddhe Gond Ka Akhada at Foota Tal, Ustad Bahadur Ka Akhada at Madartekari, Ustad Bakshi Ka Akhada at Bari Omti, Ustad Girdhari Ka Akhada at Ganjipura, Ustad Ghaseeta Ka Akhada at Cherital, Ustad Bhallo Ka Akhada at Bandhaiya, Ustad Ganga Prasad Ka Akhada at Sadar Bazar, Ustad Dhanpat Singh Ka Akhada at Gorakhpur and Ustad Dil Bhara Ka Akhada at Udiya Mohalla.

Shri Kanhaiyalal Girdharilal Jain Dharmarth Aushadhalaya, Katni.—Established in 1923, this Ayurvedic hospital provides free treatment to patients. It was registered in 1957. It also has a branch at village Kailwara, near Katni.

Red Cross Society, Jabalpur—The Jabalpur District branch of the Indian Red Cross Society is functioning for the last several years. Its branches exist at the tahsil level also. This society is managing First-Aid classes in schools and colleges, supplying glasses free of cost to the needy and poor students and artificial appliances to the poor invalids, distributing milk-powder, carrying on vaccinations and managing First-Aid centres. It has also started a Blood Bank.

Educational Advancement

1. **The Hitakarini Sabha, Jabalpur**—This is the oldest social service institution in the District, established at Jabalpur as early as in 1868. In the beginning, it made vigorous efforts for the use of Hindi in the courts. Soon, however, the Sabha undertook the onerous task of the spread of education. It first established a Primary school in 1870, which was ultimately raised to High School level. It also installed a printing press known as the Hitakarini Press from which a monthly magazine, Hitakarini, was printed. In 1906, the main building of the Hitakarini High School was constructed. Later, the Sabha started the Hitakarini Mahavidyalaya in 1933, the Hitakarini Law College in 1934, and the Hitakarini Kanya Vidyalaya in 1937. Two years later, the Law College building was constructed. Two new schools, one each at Garha and Govindganj wards, were also started in the city in 1944 and 1948, respectively.

2. **The Anjuman Islamia, Jabalpur**—This is another old Institution established at Jabalpur in 1876 with a view to rendering social service to the Muslim community. The Anjuman Islamia is managing a Higher Secondary school, two Middle schools and one Primary school in Jabalpur city. All the institutions use the prefix 'Anjuman Islamia'.

In addition to the above, there are six religious Seminaries in the city and one each at Sihora and Udaipura under the auspicies of this organisation.

3 New Education Society, Jabalpur—The New Education Society was founded at Jabalpur in 1949 with the aim of meeting the need for increasing number of educational institutions in the State in general, and in Jabalpur in particular. The Society manages six educational institutions: a Higher Secondary school and a Law College at Jabalpur, an Agricultural Higher Secondary school at Barman and a Girls Higher Secondary school at Gadarwara (both in Narsimhapur District), and a Middle school and a High school at Nagpur.

Other Societies—In addition to the above societies, there are three societies at Katni, namely, Shri Narayan Sanskrit Mahavidyalaya Shiksha Samiti, Shri Digamber Jain Shiksha Samiti and Tilak Rashtriya Vidyalaya Shiksha Samiti. All the three societies manage a number of educational institutions. Besides, the first of these manages a Sanskrit Mahavidyalaya while the third a Science and Arts Degree College at Katni. Sihora also has two societies, namely, Shiksha Samiti, Khitola Bazar, Sihora, and Satya Jnanodaya Samiti,

Sihora. The former manages a Higher Secondary school while the latter runs a College where Arts and Science subjects are taught up to degree standard.

Organisations of Community Welfare :

1. **Bharat Scouts and Guides Association, Jabalpur.**—A branch of the Bharat Scouts and Guides Association was opened at Jabalpur in 1918 and was registered in 1950. The Association is affiliated to the State branch. Its branches are functioning in practically all the educational institutions of the District. In January 1963 the total number of Scouts and Guides in the District was 800 and 700, respectively.

2. **Samaj Shiksha Samiti, Jabalpur.**—This was established at Jabalpur in 1948 with the aim of spreading literacy among the adults and to undertake activities for the social welfare of the community. It was registered in 1950-51 and is affiliated to the All-India Adult Education Society, New Delhi. In 1961-62 the Samiti was managing 30 Adult Education Centres in Jabalpur city where about 750 adults were being made literate. After the successful completion of 10 months' course the candidates are awarded certificates. It is also managing a library centre.

3. **District Bharat Sewak Samaj.**—This institution, working for the social, cultural and economic betterment of the community, was established at Jabalpur in December 1952. With the aid of the Central Social Welfare Board it is maintaining crafts and sewing classes for women in various parts of the District. The community centre at Jabalpur, in Ghamapur ward, is working in the slum-areas, trying to help about 500 families in their march towards social progress. Its branches are functioning at Katni, Barghi, Sihora and Patan. This Samaj is managing a library, a family-planning centre, a Primary school and a Balwadi in the city. The Mahila Bharat Sewak Samaj has also come into being to work among the women.

4. **District Bhoodan Samiti.**—With a view to developing a spirit of fellow-feeling among the people and to secure just and equitable distribution of land among the agriculturists, a branch of the Bhoodan Samiti was established in the District, in 1952. Soon after, local leaders of the Samiti undertook a month-long tour of the rural areas of the District in which about 19,000 acres of land was received as gift. In the course of the next two years the land received as gift swelled to 30,000 acres. From 1952 to 1956 the Samiti was busy in distributing the land received as gift among the landless peasants. The Bhoodan Samiti was dissolved in 1957 and

in the following year the District Sarvodaya Mandal was established to carry forward the tasks of the Bhoodan Samiti. Ever since its foundation, the Mandal has been serving the community in diverse fields of activity.

5. **Shanker Nagar Association, Jabalpur**.—The Shanker Nagar Association was established at Jabalpur in September 1962 with a view to organising literary, cultural, physical and other welfare activities in Shanker Nagar colony. It runs a library and a reading-room and provides facilities for indoor and outdoor games. It has 160 members on its roll and is a registered body.

6. **Khamaria Milan Mandir, Jabalpur**.—This organisation was established in 1959 with the aim of organising sports and games for the youths, a hobby-centre for the children and for cultural development. It was registered in 1960 and is affiliated to the Bharat Sewashram Sangh, Calcutta. The Milan Mandir is managing a library and a charitable Homoeopathic dispensary.

7. **Samaj Kalyan Parishad, Jabalpur**.—It was established at Jabalpur in 1958 and was registered in 1962. The Janata Sangeet Vidyalaya, Jawaharganj, Jabalpur, is affiliated to it. The Panchsheel Shishu Vihar in Sarafa, Nehru Bal Mandir and Mahila Jan Kalyan Samiti in Ghamapur, Mahila Jan Kalyan Samiti in Old Bajaji and Jyotikala in Jawaharganj are some of the institutions (located in the city) affiliated to the Samaj Kalyan Parishad. In the Mahila Jan Kalyan Samiti tailoring classes for destitutes and poor ladies are conducted, while Jyotikala organises cultural programmes.

8. **Arya Samaj, Jabalpur**.—The Arya Samaj was established at Jabalpur in the year 1895 and was registered in 1907. In 1938, a branch of the Samaj was opened in Gorakhpur ward in the city. Three other bodies, namely, Mahila Arya Samaj, Arya Kumar Sabha and Bal Arya Samaj are functioning under the Gorakhpur branch. The Arya Samaj, Jabalpur, is affiliated to the Arya Pratinidhi Sabha, Madhya Pradesh and Vidarbha. It is managing a Higher Secondary school for girls. Branches of the Samaj are also functioning in Khamaria and Gun Carriage Factory Quarters in the city.

9. **The Navjavan Mandal, Jabalpur**.—Established in 1953, the Navjavan Mandal was registered 5 years later. This institution maintains a free reading-room and a library, a charitable dispensary and arranges indoor and outdoor games. The Mandal has its own building and has taken in hand the construction of a Public Hall for social-cum-religious functions.

10. **Shri Ramkrishna Ashram, Jabalpur.**—A branch of this well-known social service institution was established at Jabalpur in 1946. It is running a Homoeopathic dispensary and a library.

11. **Shri Krishna Bal Ramayan Samaj, Katni.**—Established in 1947, at Katni, this Samaj organises cultural programmes in the rural areas of Katni tahsil. It receives grant-in-aid from the Government for its activities. It is affiliated to the Madhya Pradesh Kala Parishad, Gwalior, and is a registered body.

12. **Shri Hari Mandir Samiti, Jabalpur.**—This Samiti was formed at Jabalpur in 1952. It is a registered institution and has 200 members on its roll. The Samiti organises cultural and recreational activities.

13. **Maharashtra Shikshan Mandal, Jabalpur.**—The Mandal was established in the year 1926 and was registered under the Societies Registration Act 1860 (XXI of 1860). Till March 1965 the Mandal had organised (1) Maharashtra Higher Secondary School, (2) Mahakoshal Higher Secondary School, (3) Bhatkhande Music College, and (4) Women's College, all at Jabalpur. In the year 1960 the last named two institutions were transferred to Mahakoshal Shiksha Prasar Samiti, Jabalpur. The two Higher Secondary Schools impart training to about 2,500 scholars through Marathi and Hindi mediums. The membership of the Mandal in March 1965 was about 385. The income and expenditure of the Mandal during the period 1960-61 to 1963-64 were about Rs. 1,57,300 and 1,57,000, respectively.

14. **Young Men's Christian Association, Jabalpur.**—A local centre of the Association was first established at Jabalpur in the year 1916, to unite young men in fellowship through healthy club life, organising indoor and outdoor games, discussions, debates, etc. Membership is open to young men of all castes, colours and creeds. In the year 1965-66 there were two local centres of the Association functioning at Jabalpur. For some years a local centre of the Young Women's Christian Association was also functioning at Jabalpur.

15. **The Mahakoshal Shaheed Smarak Trust, Jabalpur.**—The Trust was founded in the year 1946 by Seth Govind Das, to raise a memorial to the martyrs who sacrificed their lives in the struggle of India's freedom. The aims and objectives of the Trust have already been discussed earlier.

The Trust was registered in 1953. It gives monetary help at the rate of Rs. 25 per month to 15 families of freedom fighters. It has also started a scheme to award annually the late Jagmohan Das Essay Prizes of the values of Rs. 1,000, Rs. 500, and Rs. 250 to Hindi Essay-writers whose essays will be approved by the Essay Rewards Committee.

Besides, the Trust celebrates its annual function on the 16th October. It also celebrates Kalidas Samaroh and Kavi Sammelan. The Trust has movable property of the value of Rs. 40,000. The source of income of the Trust is the rent of the building.

CHAPTER XIX

PLACES OF INTEREST

AMODA

(21°30′ N; 77°30′ E; MSL 389 m.)

This small village of Sihora tahsil is situated on the crest of Kaimur range. It is 73·6 Km. from Jabalpur, 11·2 Km. to the south-west of Bahoriband, and 30.4 Km. from Sihora, the tahsil headquarters. The Sihora—Majholi fair-weather road is the nearest main road to this village. The nearest railway station, police station and post office for the village are Sihora Road on Katni-Itarsi main-line of Central Railways. Majholi and Bachaiya, respectively. Among the many *Sati* monuments found in the neighbourhood, one is inscribed indicating its date as *Samvat* 1651, corresponding to 1594 A.D., when Gond Raja Prem Narayan was in power. A small *garh* or fortress of this place finds reference in a popular song of Alha. The village has one primary school and its population, according to the Census of 1961, is 449 as against 303 persons in 1901.

BAHORIBAND

(23°35′ N; 80°00′ E; MSL 433 m.)

The name of this fairly large village of Sihora tahsil appears to have originated from the many embankments existing in the locality. It is 64 Km. from Jabalpur and 24 Km. to the north-west of Sihora. Salaia railway station on Bina-Katni branch line of Central Railway is 27·8 Km. from here, while the Sihora Road station on Katni-Itarsi main-line of Central Railway is 27.2 Km. from the village which is connected by motorable roads to both the railway stations. The village appears to be an ancient one, identified by Cunningham with Tholobana of Ptolemy. Among the many ancient remains, there is a relic of a statue of the Jain Tirthankar Shantinath, 12 feet high and 6 feet broad. The Rashtrakuta inscription at the pedestal of this image records the erection of a temple dedicated to Shantinath probably in the 10th or 11th century A. D. To the north of the village is a large tank, the south-west corner of which shows traces of several old temples. Finely sculptured stones are scattered over a large area. One of the stones bears the 10 incarnations of Vishnu among which conspicuously figure the fish and the tortoise. The temples were built after the Gupta style, distinguished by flat roofs and prolongation of the head of the doorway beyond the jambs and the pillars. The village also contains a

few other temples built in the last century and several other tanks large and small in which water-nuts are grown. There is also a *Chabutra* of Aulia Piran Pir Sahib for whose maintenance the Government has granted the Mouza Kisan Patan, revenue free. The village has a Gram Panchayat, a Block Development Office, a main Government hospital, a veterinary hospital, a primary health centre, a sub-centre of public health, a co-operative society, a police station, a post office, a rest house, two Primary schools and one boys Secondary school. The village has, according to the last Census of 1961, a population of 1,892 as against 1,469 in 1901. A *Mela* attended by about 10,000 persons is held here every year on *Til Sankranti* day and continues for 5 days. Weekly market is held on Wednesday. Bamboo baskets are largely prepared in the village.

BARGAON

(23°55′ N; 80°00′ E; MSL 427 m)

This fairly large old village of Murwara tahsil lies 43.2 Km. north-west of Murwara, and about 8 Km. from Salaia railway station on the Katni-Bina branch-line of the Central Railway. It is on the old Murwara-Damoh road, 1.6 Km. away from the Katni river. Ruins of old temples of both Brahmanic and Jain origin are found in the village. The temple of Somnath which is said to have withstood the attack of Aurangzeb, and built in Gupta style probably in the 5th or 6th century A. D. deserves mention. Inscriptions found here mention the name of Karnadeva, a king of Kalachuri dynasty ruling at Tripuri or modern Tewar (subsequently described). About 1.6 Km. away, there are remains of two ancient temples built of beautifully carved stones. The village has a Government Primary school and a Gram Panchayat. A weekly market is held on every Monday. The village has, as per Census of 1961, a population of 2,051 as against 1,378 in 1901.

BARGI

(23°00′ N; 79°15′ E; MSL 404 m.)

This small village of Jabalpur tahsil is situated 10.6 Km. south of Jabalpur on the National Highway connecting Jabalpur with Nagpur, known as the New Great Northern Road. Bargi is also a railway station on the branch metre-gauge line of South Eastern Railway connecting Jabalpur with Gondia in Bhandara district of Maharashtra State. On the top of a conical hill is situated a rest-house in front of which remains of an old temple and a fortress are lying. The top of this hill gives a fine view of the country around. The village

was one of the proverbially famous 52 *garhas* or forts which the famous Gond Raja Sangram Shah held under his sway. The river Narmada is 7·2 Km· away from the village· Modern temples of Shankar, Gauri, etc., are in the locality. On Til Sankranti day and Kartik Purnima day fairs are held attracting about 2,000 persons every year· The village is a Block Development centre having two Government Primary schools, one boys Secondary school, a Gram panchayat, a police station, a post-office, a cattle-pound and a Forest Ranger's office. The village is electrified and tap-water is available here. A weekly market is held on every Friday. Firewood extensively collected from the forests around is exported mainly to Jabalpur. It has, according to the census of 1961, a population of 1,373 as against 793 in 1901.

BHERAGHAT

(23°8′ N; 79°48′ E; MSL 408 m·)

This small village of Jabalpur tahsil, situated on the bank of the river Narmada and widely famous for its marble rocks is at a distance of about 21 Km· from Jabalpur by road· It lies at a distance of about 5 Km· by road from the railway station of the same name, on the main-line of the Central Railway connecting Jabalpur with Itarsi· The name of the place is traditionally associated with the *Rishi* named Bhirgu who is said to have resided here· It is also suggested that the name originated from the word 'Bhera' which means a meeting place, signifying the confluence of two rivers, the Narmada and the Bawanganga, which takes place here.

Here the mighty river, the Narmada, pent up into a third of its width, for a space of about two miles, forces its way through the mighty and majestic marble rocks of over 105 feet in height. The scenic beauty it produces has perhaps no parallel in the world· Not even the famous river Colorado, which flows through the American desert of Arizona with its lofty banks can compete it either in splendour or in quiet· The perpendicular magnesian lime-stone rocks, which fringe the crystal clear placid waters are dazzlingly bright against the vast blue of the sky. Beneath the snow-white pinnacle the reflected sunlight loses its brilliance and gradually mellows into softer shade, as a dove's breast. Further below, it almost melts into rippling waves, quivering and dancing under the glaring sun. These magnificent lime-stone rocks are not evenly shaded with only one colour of pure white; here and there the brilliant whiteness is tinted with veins of blue, pink and azure of the celestial rainbow On a moonlit night, when the whole stretch of water is transformed into a sheer of liquid silver and when the whole area is nothing less than a dream-land, a boat journey between these sheer walls of pure

marble is surely entrancing. The eye never wearies of the infinite beauty, nor the ear of the constant splashing of water amidst the sylvan solitude. The large volume of water which has a depth of 169 feet near the Travellers' Rest house, makes its first plunge into the mighty rift of 'Dhuandhar' or the fall of smoke producing a fine transparent fluid screen. Lower down, the beautiful river provides a rare boating course, facilities for which are provided by the Janapada Sabha, Jabalpur from November to May. In this narrow channel of the mighty river there is a place where the steep marbles approach each other so closely from opposite banks that local people have very aptly named it the 'monkey's leap' (Bandar Kudni).[1]

Amidst these surroundings of heavenly bliss the only disturbing element is the presence of those dreadful *Bonhra* (the most dangerous species of bees) whose combs hang on every jutting ledge at the marble clift like so many icicles. On the slightest provocation these vindictive insects might prove fatal.

Every confluence of rivers is held sacred by the people. Hence, Bheraghat has become one of the holy bathing places on the Narmada. It is said that king Gayakarna bathed here with his gracious queen Alhanadevi and his son, attended by the King's treasurer, Chief Minister, family priest and others before making a grant to certain Brahmans. Here also bathed queen Gosala Devi before making a similar grant of the village 'Choralayi'. Several Hindu mythological legends are transplanted to this region by the local priests. The bathing *ghat* is also known as Panchavatighat. It finds a reference in the *Mahabharata* as one of the lovely *Tirthasthans* (holy places) and included in the itinerary of its hero Yudhisthira. According to another legend here leapt across the chasm, Hanuman. on his way to Lanka.

Immediately above the confluence, where the fork between the great river and its tiny tributary Bawanganga (here known as Saraswati) has risen into a small hill there is a temple atop, sur-

1 Forsyth, Highlands of Central India, pp. 40—45. According to local tradition the passage was created by Devaraj Indra, where the round marks of his celestial elephant are still shown to the visitors. Another legend associated with this narrow path, is a tale of an unfortunate female monkey, who lost her life in attempting to leap across. Her body fell down in o the sacred waters, but her head got entangled into a bamboo bush and floated above. In her next birth as a princess of Kashi she still retained her monkey's head Only after the animal-head of her previous birth was rescued from the bamboo bush and immersed into the Narmada that the beautiful princess got back her lovely crown

mounted by a curious circular cloister of considerable antiquity. A long flight of roughly-hewn stone-steps lead right up from the head of the river to the temple. The position of this temple is singularly fine and commanding. Close beneath, on the south, the blue waters of the Narmada seem to sleep, spell-bound, under the snow-white walls that shut them in. To the north and west the view is bounded by thickly wooded heights, but on the east the eye looks down on a long reach of the river, stretching away for miles towards Jabalpur. It is commonly believed that queen Alhanadevi the consort of king Gayakarna, son of Yashkarna and grandson of king Karnadeva, built this temple in the Kalachuri Chedi year 907 (1155-56 A.D.) during the reign of her eldest son Narsimhadeva.[1] It is now called the Vaidyanath or the Gauri Shankar temple and has a very peculiar shape. The enclosure that surrounds it is circular, the outer diameter being 130' 9" and the inner diameter 116' 6". The temple itself stands inside this circular enclosure, but not in the centre nor on the centre line. According to many archaeologists the present temple is a comparatively modern structure being made up partly of old carved stones from the older building and partly of bricks, and erected on the lower part of its original *Garbhagriha*. Recently repairs have been made by striking off the old decayed lime plaster, filling in the cracks with toned plaster and providing a fresh white-wash. The floor was also repaired. The plan of the *Garbhagriha*, which faces the north is exactly the same as one of the shrines of the triple shrined temple of Karnadeva at Amarkantank. Its position at the north-western quadrant of the circle induced Cunningham to infer that originally there might have been a duplicate shrine, opposite to it in the south-western quarter, and a main temple on the eastern half of the circle. The objects of worship at the main temple are fine images of Siva and Durga, seated on the back of their carrier *Nandin*. Both of them have two hands, Siva holds a trident in his right hand, while Durga, a mirror. It is 4 feet 1½ inches high and 2 feet 7½ inches broad, and evidently belongs to the cloister series figures of the 64 yoginis. Other figures inside the temple are the following: —

1. Vishnu and Lakshmi in dark blue stone,
2. Surya standing on his chariot of seven horses and the charioteer Arun,

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1. According to the Bheraghat inscription of Queen Alhanadevi, which is now kept in the American Oriental Society's Museum, she is stated to have erected a temple of Siva, a circular learning hall and a line of gardens. The two villages Namaundi and Mukarapataka on the right bank of the Narmada were donated by her for its maintenance.

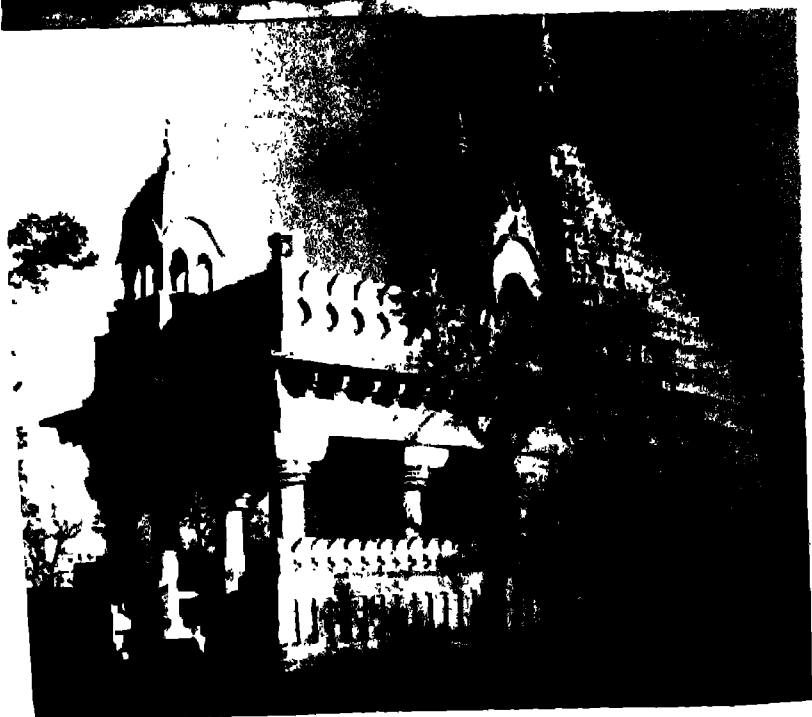
3. a small figure of Ganesh, and

4. a figure of Dharma as four-armed female goddess, with a small figure of the Buddha on her head-dress and traces of Buddhist creed inscribed on the base.

From the presence of this Buddhist icon inside the main temple and also a figure of Taradevi, wife of Avalokiteshwar in the circular cloister, Cunnigham thinks that it is not unlikely that the cloister once encircled a Buddhist *stupa*.

Of more interest is the circular cloister which consists of a huge and thick outer wall. Inside that there is a circular row of pillars and pilasters, arranged in two concentric circles. Between each pair of pilasters there is a low pedestal of reddish white sandstone, in front of which is a niche containing a diamond-shaped rosette. Over each of these pedestals the statue of one of the sixty-four attendants (*chausat yoginis*) of the powerful goddess 'Kali' is placed. The number of the pillars in the circle being 84, the cloister is divided into as many intervals. Three of these, two to the west and one to the south-east, are left as entrances; and the remaining 81 spaces are fitted with a figure each. These images fall into two broad groups: one class consists of standing figures, carved out of a brittle reddish sandstone, while the other has seated images of dull greenish yellow sandstone, which are invariably inscribed with letters, prevailing in the 10th century. Some of them are executed according to the Kushana style of art. They have pleasing facial expression, but not a very perfectly proportionate form. Still, they are superb as specimens of Kalachuri art. Their dresses and ornaments are exquisitely executed.

Of these 81 statues, apart from the Yoginis, there are eight figures of *Ashta-Sakti* or female energies of God, three personified rivers, one female Ganesh, one Kali and four dancing damsels. These figures are related to the *Tantra Shastra* though they are not strictly identical with the 64 yoginis of the *Kalikapuran*, or the *Durgapuja Paddhati*. Some of these yoginis are Thakini, Virendri, Phanendri, Bhishani, Ajita, Rishtamala, Brahmani, Chandika, Chhattra Samvara, Teramva (Mahish Mardini), Darppahan, Satru-Samvara, Vaisnavi, etc. Unfortunately these superb pieces of art had been badly mutilated by the beastly legion of Asaf Khan in 1564 A. D. when the ruthless General invaded the dominion of Rani Durgavati of Garha.

Mahishasur-Mardini in Sixty-four Yogini Temple

A view of Sixty-four Yogini Temple, Bheraghat

The circular form of this temple has evoked much controversy as this form is certainly unusual in Brahmanical enclosures. But, for a temple dedicated to the *yoginis* this form seems to be the correct one. Excepting the Khajuraho temple which is oblong in shape the other three *Yogini* temples found in other parts are circular. It is probable that the *Chausat Yogini* temple at Bheraghat was originally a simple circular enclosure,[1] containing their figures, to which the modern main building was added later.

On *Kartika Purnima* an annual fair is held on this spot, around the temple of Gauri Shankar. It lasts for 3 or 4 days and draws a great multitude of about 30,000 coming from Damoh, Seoni, Narsimhapur and other adjoining regions. A *dharmasala* has been built on the *ghat* by Raja Gokuldas for accommodating the pilgrims. Artistic toys and other curios, made of locally procured soap-stone are sold here and exported in large quantities. The marble stone too is quarried, but as the rock is coarse grained and suitable only for building purposes it is extracted in limited quantity.

The village has a Primary school, a post-office and a Gram panchayat. It comes under the Community Development centre of Jabalpur. Tap water and electricity are available. Two dak bungalows, known as the Upper and Lower, had long been built for the convenience of visitors. The village has, according to the Census of 1961, a population of 379 as against 209 in 1901.

BIJAIRAGHOGARH

(23°55′ N: 80°35′ E; MSL 358 m.)

This village of Murwara tahsil lies on the road connecting the place with Katra. A good metalled road of about 33 Km. length connects this place with Murwara. The nearest railway station to the place is Jukehi (26 Km.), on the main-line of the Central Railway linking Jabalpur with Allahabad.

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1. Probably this circular cloister and the Golaki math of Yuvarajadeva and his spouse Nohala is the same. Historically, nothing definite is known regarding the actual building of this unique temple, but there is a widely known fantastic legend, which attributes its erection to king Shalivahan Nagasena. He was the son of a snake and a beautiful girl of a *Bania* family. She was driven away by her parents and gave birth to a boy at a potter's house. The potter brought him up and taught him the art of clay-modelling. When seven or eight years old, the boy went to the court of the king of Benares, whose dominion extended upto Badalgarh on the bank of the Narmada. Just then the king was attacked by the ruler of Delhi. The boy counselled war and, by the grace of Shankar and Parvati, vanquished the regal force with a host of animated clay-models. The grateful king set him up as the king of Badalgarh, with the title Ṣalivahana Nagavansi. Soon after, he built the temple and dedicated it to his benefactor deities Siva and Parvati (as its presiding god and goddess).

During the Great Revolt of 1857 Bijairaghogarh became a theatre of great heroism. One of the outstanding leaders of this movement in this region was a youth of dashing courage, Sarju Prasad Singh, the Thakur of the Bijairaghogarh estate, who had some 20 or 30 good guns. Thakur Sarju Prasad Singh was then a mere youth of 17 years; and being a minor, the estate of Bijairaghogarh inherited by him from his father Prayag Das who died in 1846, was still under the management of Court of Wards. When the British brutally executed Raja Shankar Shah and his son, the young Thakur got so agitated that he violently rose in revolt in spite of his tender age. The boy distinguished himself by many acts of daring gallantry. A Tahsildar who was appointed as the manager of the estate by the British was killed, the *dak* horses were captured, and a large number of his armed followers covered, under his instructions, the important Jabalpur—Mirzapur road. Troops sent against him on several occasions could achieve no tangible result. Neither the *dak* nor the travellers could pass along that road extending from the north to Calcutta and Bombay for weeks together. In January 1858, with the help of Rewa troops, a Jabalpur detachment blew up a portion of the fort built by Thakur Prayag Das and took possession of the fort. Thakur Sarju Prasad however, managed to escape and wandered about in the guise of a Muslim fakir. Ultimately he was arrested, convicted and sentenced to transportation for life. He committed suicide at Varanasi on his way to the penal settlement. His estate was confiscated. For about a decade (1865-75) Bijairaghogarh was the headquarters of a tahsil. However, the tahsil headquarters was subsequently removed to Murwara.

Of the archaeological finds the old fort of Prayagdas and the beautiful temple, built at a cost of nearly two lakhs of rupees, deserve special attention. The presiding deity of this temple is Ram from whom the name of this village is supposed to have been derived. Both these structures are now in an uncared for state and need repairs.

There is a spring called 'Jhapawalla Nala', the water of which is noted for its medicinal value.

The place is famous for its brass and copper-metal working and for its rich laterite deposites. The village has 2 Primary schools, one boys Secondary school, a post office, a police-station, a District Range office, a rest-house, a Block Development office, a primary health centre and a dispensary. The village is electrified. On the *Til Sankranti* day, the Bhumikeshwar fair, attended by about 8,000 persons, is held here which lasts for 3 days.

The village population, according to the Census of 1961, is 3,669 as against 2,200 in 1901.

BILHARI

(23°44′ N; 80°22′ E; MSL 419 m.)

This large village of Murwara tahsil lies 12.8 km. to the south-west of Murwara and 54.8 km. to the north-east of Jabalpur. The nearest approach road to the village is the Mirzapur Road. Niwar and Katni, both railway stations on the mainline connecting Allahabad with Jabalpur are at a distance of about 14 km. from Bilhari.

Tradition speaks that a few centuries ago the place was known as Pushpavati Nagari or Puhsvati, having a circumference of about 38.4 km. Then its centre was the Bhainsa Kunda, now lying at about 6.4 km. west of the village. Old remains, images and sculptured stones are still found scattered over an extensive area in the neighbourhood. This indicates the past glory and extent of this ancient place. Beautifully carved columns of temples now adorn the houses. Among the ruins the image of the Hindu triad Brahma, Siva and Surya with seven horses below deserves mention. Besides, the great tank Lakshman sagar, the small tank Dhabna Tal, the Vishnu Varah temple and the ruined temple, popularly known as the palace of Kama Kandala, belong to the old period. The Vishnu Varah temple is one of those quasi-Muhammadan structures in which are placed a small neatly carved image of Vishnu and a block bearing an image of *Varah* (boar), both from some old temple. The structure is tall and it appears that the same might have been built on the ruins of a more ancient temple. The picturesque and classic looking palace of Kama Kandala, the romantic heroine of Viraha Varish was built of ashler masonry. Most of the stones had been removed by contractors to build a bridge at Katni. The local tradition is that in Pushpavati, Madhavanal, a great vocalist and the hero of the said drama resided. Once he was banished by king Govind Rao of Pushpavati who was displeased with Madhavanal. After expulsion he reached the court of the king of Karnavati. There he fell in love with the beautiful dancing girl of the royal court, Kama Kandala. With the help and blessings of king Vikramaditya of Ujjaini, he married her. Later, he was admitted in Pushpavati where the hero built a palace for his heroine Kama Kandala.

A long stone inscription found on the embankment of Lakshman Sagar and now preserved in the Central Museum, Nagpur appears to have been composed by two authors. The first part of it records the construction of a Siva temple (the Nauhaleshwar temple) by queen Nohala of the Kalachuri ruler Keyuravarsha, who ruled at Tripuri (modern Tewar) in about 11th century A. D. The king then endowed five villages for the maintenance of the

temple. He is described in the epigraph as a son of Mugdhatunga, who was a son of Kokalladeva, a descendant of Sahasrarjuna or Kartavirya of the Haihaya tribe belonging to the lunar race. The inscription adds that Kokalladeva I, the grand father of Keyuravarsha put up two unprecedented columns of his fame, that is, supported Krishnaraja in the south and Bhojadeva in the north. Further Mugdhatunga, the father of Keyuravarsha is eulogised as having conquered all the countries lying on the eastern sea-shore. Second part of the inscription narrates military achievements of Lakshmanraja, the son of Nohala. He is said to have reached the western coast and worshipped Siva in the celebrated temple of Somanath, and dispoiled the ruler of Kosala of his bejewelled effigy of Kaliya. The treasure was subsequently dedicated to Someshwara by the victorious King. Curiously enough the epigraph ends with the mention of Rajashekhara the poet laureate at the court of Yuvarajdeva.

Ain-i-Akbari[1] describes the betel leaf extensively grown at Bilhari and well known widely, thus: "The leaf called Bilhari is white and shining and does not make the tongue harsh or hard. It tastes best of all kinds.".

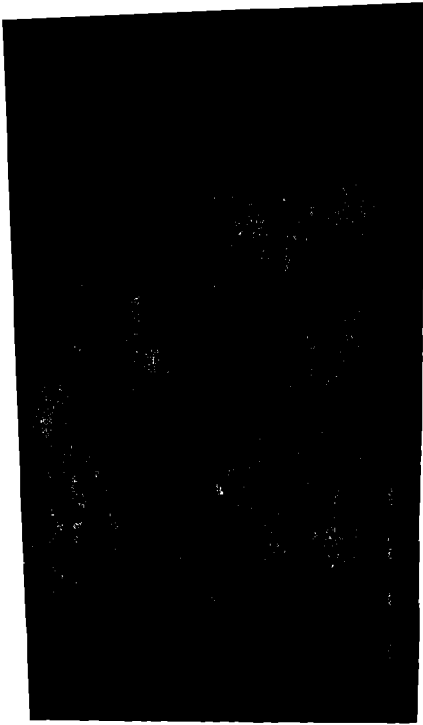
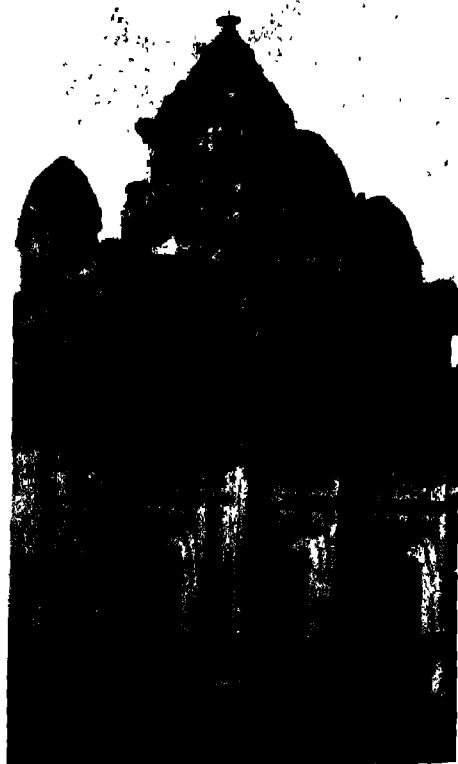
Traces of old forts are there. The fort, ascribed to one Lakshman Singh, after whom the great tank mentioned above is so called, was formerly used for stationing troops by the Indian rulers. It was blown up by mines and partially destroyed in 1857 when the Great Revolt took place and the fort was infested by the participants.

The main line of communication connecting the valleys of the Narmada and the Ganges passed through Bilhari before the construction of the Jabalpur-Mirzapur Road, which deprived the village of its importance.

On *Til Sankranti* day every year a fair, attracting about 5,000 persons, is held at the village near Gaya-Kunda. It lasts for 3 days. Cottage industries like brass and copper-ware making, bamboo-wares and shoe-making are carried on in the village.

The village has 2 Primary schools and a post-office. It comes under the jurisdiction of Khamaria police-station. Its population according to the Census of 1961, is 3,057, as against 2,356 in 1901.

1. Ain-i-Akbari, translated by Blochman, Vol. I, p. 72.

Laxminarayan on Garud, Bilhari

Vishnu with sixteen arms on Garud, Bilhari

Tapsi Math. Bilhari

BURHAGAR

(23°21′ N; 80°1′ E; MSL 393 m.)

It is a small village in Sihora tahsil lying 17.6 Km. south-west of Sihora, 6.4 Km. from Deori railway station on the Katni-Itarsi main-line of the Central Railway, and 22.4 Km. away from Jabalpur. From Sihora buses are available for Burhagar. Burhan Sagar, said to be the largest tank in the District, lies to the west of the village. It is above 1.6 Km. in length and about 1.6 Km. in breadth. With rough stones the tank is embanked on two sides. It appears to be an ancient structure having an interesting history. It is said, that during the reign of Gond Raja Hirde Shah of Garha-Mandla, four brothers, Gadaria by caste, lived at the place. Once their daughter-in-law accidentally found a touch-stone which changed their fortune overnight. In order to allay royal suspicion, the brothers presented the stone to the king, who graciously enough refused to accept it. He advised them to utilise their wealth in constructing large tanks for the public. Legend goes that four brothers, *viz.*, Burhan, Sarman, Kowrai and Kodu, respectively constructed Burhan Sagar at Burhagar, Sarman Sagar at Saroli Majhgawan, Kowrai Sagar at Kuan and Kundam Sagar at Kundam.

Recently a small factory of Kusner tiles has been established here. A weekly market meets on Friday. The village has a Gram panchayat, a post-office, and two Primary schools. The village is, according to the Census of 1961, populated by 1524 as against 703 in 1901.

DAIMAPUR

(23°31′ N; 80°13′ E; MSL 411 m.)

This small village of Sihora tahsil lies at a distance of 57.6 Km. from Jabalpur and 16 Km. east of Sihora. The village contains numerous ruins and a number of exquisitely carved Jain images found in the locality and relics of old temples and images belonging to the Jains and the Hindus. These are scattered over an extensive area in the neighbourhood. Legned goes that King Viraman, who had a fight with King Rama of Ayodhya when his son bridled the sacrificial horse let loose by Rama, lived in this region. Then the name of the place was said to be Devapur having an extensive area of several Km. Fragments of beautifully carved and sculptured stones and a number of exquisitely carved Jain images found in the locality, can still be seen kept in the niches of the walls of a step-well at Tola, a village about 3 Km. away from Daimapur. The pedestal of one of the statues bears an inscription dated 907, probably of the Kalachuri era corresponding to about 1155 A.D. A *sati* stone of the

village dated 1345 A.D. gives the name of the place as Daimapur Nagar.

The village has a Primary school and a population, as per the Census of 1961, of 52 persons only.

DEORI (CHOTTI)

(23°50′ N. 79°00′ E: MSL 404 m.)

This small village of Sihora tahsil, situated near Sati Pahar, is connected by a motorable road with the tahsil headquarters. The village lies at a distance of 6.1 Km. from the railway station Hardua on the Bina-Katni branch-line of the Central Railway. The place is of considerable interest from epigraphic and archaeological point of view. On the left bank of the river Ken which runs nearby, there is a thick forest strewn with relics and ruins of a cluster of about 30 to 40 temples. Their sculptured stones and images can be seen scattered over an extensive area, mostly in broken condition. Carved pillars and doorways are also found, at the bottom of which may be seen the figures of the Ganges and Yamuna represented as *Devis* or Goddesses with their symbols of crocodile and tortoise. One temple which has not fallen completely is used for burying the 'ghosts' which trouble the villagers in the neighbourhood. The Kalachuri King Sankaragana is mentioned in connection with the construction of a granary in one inscription on a pillar. The village has a Primary school.

JABALPUR CITY

(23°10′ N; 79°57′ E: MSL 402 m.)

Jabalpur is the headquarters station of the Division, District and Tahsil of the same name in the State of Madhya Pradesh. It is linked by rails or roads with all the important places within and outside the State. It is a junction station of the Central and the South-Eastern Railways; lying on the Allahabad-Itarsi main line of the Central Railway, while a narrow gauge line of the South-Eastern Railway branches off from here and connects it with Gondia (187.2 Km.) of the Bhandara district of the Maharashtra State. Few stations in the plains, of our country, can compare with Jabalpur for the charm of its surroundings. It is certainly set in a most attractive stretch of country. The metropolis itself stands in a rock basin about 9.6 Km., from the river Narmada and 20.8 Km. from Bheraghat Marble Rocks. Myths and legends associate the place with Jabali Risi who is said to have resided here and from whom the place has perhaps taken its name. The importance of the city is largely modern. In ancient as well as in mediaeval periods the place could not achieve any glory or importance because of the existence in close proximity of places like Tripuri and Garha which

enjoyed the capitalship of Dahala Mandala, an old name of this region.

Palaeoliths have been discovered at Bheraghat, Gwarighat and Jabalpur[1]. From this evidence it is proved that the place was an abode of the prehistoric man as early as in the palaeolithic age. Its importance began to increase from the year 1781 when the country was occupied by the Marathas, after defeating the Gond rulers of Garha-Mandla. They built a small fort here and made it a headquarters of their administration. The court has now disappeared. The District was granted by the Peshwa in 1798 to the Bhonslas of Nagpur from whom the British took its possession after the latter's victory in the battle of Sitabaldi.

In 1818 Jabalpur became the headquarters of the 'Commissioner on the Nerbudda' and soon after, of the Agent to the Governor-General and Commissioner of the 'Saugor Nerbudda Territories'. Since then the place has made constant progress.

The modern city is situated on an elevation of 1320 feet above sea-level and the place has plenty of water near the surface. With the increase in importance the place has witnessed a constant increase in its population and extent. The city Corporation area now includes the Gun-carriage and Ordnance Factory areas, Khamaria, the Cantonment area, and several suburbs like Garhs and Tilwaraghat, etc.

From the point of view of archaeological remains the locality by name Garha, situated on Jabalpur-Nagpur road is very important. It is now under the jurisdiction of the Jabalpur Corporation. Garha had enjoyed the capitalship of the Gond rulers of Garha-Mandla for about 500 years. The place has the remains of Madan Mahal, the pleasure palace of the 10th Gond King Madan Singh, built about 1100 A D. It is a very plain and simple structure without any ornamentation. It stands now, like a water-tower on the summit of a hill poised on two gigantic hills, the upper part of which on one side overhangs the base and commands a magnificent view over the rich valley around. To the west of this Mahal lies the Ganga-Sagar tank and a little further away is the vast expanse of the Bal Sagar. A number of temples erected by the Gond Kings in the locality are fast decaying. The place, with all its departed glory, reminds the visitors of the greatness of Garha in the old age, when the subjects paid their rents to the royal treasury in the form of elephants and gold *Mohars*[2]. In 1908 a treasure trove consisting of 146 gold and 36 silver coins was discovered between Garha

1 Indian Archaeology, A Review, 1958-59, p. 72.
2. Ain-i-Akbari, Vol. II, translated by Jarrett, p. 207.

and Madan Mahal. The coins bear the names of the Sultans of Delhi, Gujarat and Kashmir, Khaljis of Malwa, Sharkis of Jaunpur, Kings of Nepal and Brahmans of Kulbarga, ranging in dates between 1311 and 1553 A.D. Near the Deotal an annual fair, attracting above 1,000 persons, is held in the month of August or September. In the middle of Deotal there is a spring from where water is taken away to distant places, as it is believed to possess some medicinal properties. Another *mela* of the Jains largely attended by them is annually held around the temple, popularly known as Pisanhari-Ki-Madhia.

Three miles to the south of Garha stands the famous Bajnamath where a temple constructed by the monks of the *Tantric* sect to perform their peculiar religious rites stands. Near about, there is a tank, in the centre of which there is an old historical palace. In another adjacent village named Deotalao two old temples have been discovered. The bigger temple is of Somanath, while the smaller one is of Bhairava, a plain square shrine without *Mandapa*. The *Shikhara* of both resembles the hut-shaped roof of some of the temples of Bengal belonging to later age.

The Tilwaraghat locality is 9.6 Km. away from Jabalpur on the old Nagpur road. It is situated on the bank of the Narmada. There is an old Mahadeva or Tilwadeshwar temple. Mahatma Gandhiji's ashes were immersed in the Narmada from this ghat and to commemorate that event a monument is erected on the spot. In 1939 it was the venue of the open sessions of the Congress, *viz.*, the Tripuri Congress.

Besides these remains of archaeological importance there are some large tanks in the city having historical associations. Among them figures the Rani Tal built by the celebrated Rani Durgavati, the Cheri Tal built by the Rani's maid-servant and the Adhartal built by the minister of the Rani.

The city is an importnt centre of large commercial and industrial transactions; and quite a number of commercial concerns and industrial factories are running here. The trade in grain, and other agricultural and forest produces being very brisk a number of commercial banks have opened their branch offices in the city. Besides, there are other cottage industries.

In the field of literary, educational, cultural, social and political activities, Jabalpur city has a long tradition. It has always been one of the advanced cities of this State.

In the sphere of literary activitics the city is an abode of many writers, publishers and printers. A number of printing

presses with English, Nagari and Urdu type are there and a few dailies, weeklies, fortnightlies and monthlies are published from here.

Besides, there are as many as 12 libraries conducted by the Government and private bodies.

As regards educational activities of the place, mention may be made that above 200 educational institutions are imparting knowledge in most of its branches to the boys and girls of all ages. Besides the Government, many voluntary social service organisations are doing useful work for the all-round welfare and uplift of the people.

In the field of medicine and public health, there are many dispensaries including those for Ayurvedic treatment, hospitals for men and women with provisions for beds, family planning centres and clinics and maternity homes.

The principal public buildings of the place are those of the Divisional High Court (donated by Seth Govinddas), the Mahakoshal Martyr Memorial, University and college buildings, District Court buildings, hospitals, Victoria Memorial Hall, Gokul Bhawan, etc.

The city being the Divisional, District and Tahsil headquarters station, a number of Government departmental offices are located in the city. Details of these offices have already been given in chapters X and XIII of this volume.

For travellers and visitors there are *sarai, dharmashalas,* circuit house and rest-house for lodging. Besides, a number of hostels restaurants, and boarding and lodging houses of the city provide boarding and lodging facilities.

The civic affairs are managed by the City Corporation. The whole city is electrified and tap water is available.

According to the Census of 1961 the city's population is 3,67,014 as against 93,016 in 1901.

KAIMURI

(23°45′ N; 80°15′ E; MSL 396 m.)

This town of Patan tahsil, situated on the bank of the Hiran river, and quite close to the Bhanrer hills, is 6.4 Km. from the tahsil headquarters. The place was founded in the beginning of the 17th century by one Rao Churaman employed in the military service of Raja Narind Shah (1679-1727 A.D.), the Gond Raja of Garha-Mandla. For the military service offered, the Raja granted to the Rao

a jagir of 22 villages around Kaimuri and the Rao named the place after the neighbouring range of hills. Subsequently the Marathas confiscated the jagir, but as a reward for the good services offered to the British Government during the Great Revolt of 1857 the latter conferred a revenue-free grant of 10 villages on the then jagirdar.

There are 9 temples on the bank of the Hiran river and two temples on the hillocks near the villages known as Kishangarh and Ganeshgarh. The Achalnath cave which is hundred feet long is near the town, on the other side of the river bank. A large colony of cloth-printers has been settled here profitably. The place which was once a small village developed into a town when a cement factory was established there later.

The town has a school, a Gram panchayat, a municipal committee, and a branch post office. The weekly market is held on every Friday. Panhari *mela* is held for 5 days from the *Sivaratri* day every year, attracting about 1000 visitors. The town is under the Development Block of Patan. As per the Census of 1961 the town is populated by 12,319 persons, as against 1,688 in 1901.

KANHWARA

(23°55′ N; 80°25′ E; MSL 396 m.)

It is a large village of Murwara tahsil, lying 14·4 Km. to the north of Murwara on the Murwara-Bijairaghogarh road and 9 6 Km. away from the Jukehi railway station on the Allahabad-Katni main-line of the Central Railway. Within the area of the village there are 52 small tanks, and within a radius of about 3.2 to 5 Km. are to be seen numerous remains of ancient structure including temples of carved stones of every description. It is said that the founder of the modern village, Kamod Singh Baghel of Bhainswahi, carried cart-loads of carved stones from the extensively scattered ruins and erected a fortress to the south of the village. The fortress still stands there. To the west of the village lies an old deserted place called Madanpur, associated with one Madan Sen as his capital. A deposit of laterite has been discovered at this place. Small scale cottage industries like leather-shoe and bidi-making are there. Potato cultivation is extensively practised in the locality. A fair is held on *Sivaratri* day every year.

The village is electrified and it has a Primary school, a general hospital, a primary health centre, a family planning clinic, a post-office and a training centre in tailoring for women. The village is populated, according to the Census of 1961, by 2,426 persons as against 1,882 in 1901.

Sculpture of Sun God, Tripuri

Varah, Kari Talai

KARITALAI

(24°00′ N; 80°40′ E; MSL 374 m.)

A large village of Murwara tahsil and situated on the eastern side of the Kaimur range of hills, it lies about 48 Km. to the north-east of the tahsil headquarters and about 16 Km. from Bhadanpur railway station on the Allahabad-Katni main-line of the Central Railway. In old days probably it was a large town of the name Karnapur, which has now shrunk to a small village with a number of ruined temples lying along the ridge to the north of Karitalai. The question whether the name Karnapur was derived from its association with the Kalachuri king Karnadeva is yet to be decided. The present name of the place is probably due to the blackish sheet of water contained in the big local tank.

The village Karnapur appears to be archaeologically and historically an important place. A stone figure of Varaha or the boar incarnation of Vishnu, of enormous size and beautifully carved in red sand-stone has been found in broken condition. Of the four other figures found here, two big statues of a tortoise and a fish are placed at the gate of the school compound in Karitalai while two others in the form of the lion incarnation of Vishnu are placed at the gate of the Kotwali in Jabalpur. A beautiful statue of the Sun God on his chariot of seven horses was discovered from the ruins. Images of Siva and Parvati are there, but they are only a few in number. Fortunately, all these have recently been placed under the care of the Archaeological Department, so that further deterioration of these superb pieces of fine art might be arrested. Of the epigraphic materials discovered so far, the most important is a long stone inscription which has been removed to the Nagpur Museum. It records the grant of a few villages like 'Dirghashakti', 'Chakradahi', 'Chhalipataka', 'Antarpat', etc., by Lakshmanraj and his consort, for the maintenance of a Vishnu temple, built by the Chief Minister Bhatt Somesvara. There is another Karitalai stone inscription dated 842, probably 593 Chedi era. It was discovered in a damaged condition on the altar of a goddess, with the name of Lakshmanraj occurring at one corner. Other Karitalai inscriptions include the copper-plate of the Maharaja Jayanatha of the Uchchakalpa or Uchahra dynasty, dated the Gupta year 174 or 494-95 A. D; the Jain statue inscriptions and the Karitalai Shell Letter and Devi Madhia epigraphs.

KATANGI

(25°20′ N; 80°45′ E; MSL 373 m.)

This town of Jabalpur tahsil is picturesquely situated at the foot of the Bhanrer hills, 36.8 Km. north-west of Jabalpur city, 3.2 Km. to

the north of the Hiran river on the Jabalpur-Sagar road and 22.4 Km. to the north of Patan town. Its name appears to have been derived from Katao meaning the steep side of a hill. Though the town now looks insignificant it had a glorious past. To the south of the town along the bank of the river Hiran there are two old temples in a most dilapidated condition. The Gond Rajas and also the Marathas made this place their military centre because of its strategic importance. Under the Gond Rajas, the place was famous for the manufacture of gun-barrels. The Marathas made it a headquarters of their *Subahdar*. One popular *Subahdar*, Beni Singh, constructed a few temples, a masonry ghat, a *dharmashala*, and a large tank in the heart of the town. The British took its possession in 1817 and it was made the headquarters of the tahsil till 1856. During the next twelve years it was the headquarters of a police circle. The place made its name in 1858 when a fierce battle was fought here between the loyal British force and the 52nd Native infantry of Jabalpur which rose in revolt against the British regime.

The local Muslim community in general professes that it has descended from the Mughal General Asaf Khan's army. The community has mostly adopted the small scale cottage industries like cloth-dying and printing, bidi-making, etc. Every year a "Urs" is held in honour of a Pir or Muslim saint The place has 4 mosques and a Jagannath temple. A weekly market is held on Monday. It has a Gram and a Nyaya panchayat, a branch post-office 4 Primary and a boys Secondary school and a police station. It is covered by the Patan Block Development centre. It has, according to the Census of 1961, a population of 5,582 as against 3,230 in 1901.

KATNI-MURWARA

(23°50′ N: 80°24′ E: MSL 383 m.)

Katni is the name given to the railway station of the town of Murwara, the headquarters of the tahsil of the same name. It is in the eastern direction of the town and has received its name due to its close proximity to the Katni river flowing to its left. It is a junction station on the Allahabad-Itarsi main-line of the Central Railway. A branch line of the Central Railway connects this station with another station, Bina, on the Central Railway main-line connecting Delhi with Bombay via Itarsi. A line of the South-Eastern Railway branches off from Katni and links this place with Bilaspur.

The town of Murwara is said to have derived its name from the word *mund* meaning the head. It is said that a member of the

family of its former proprietors had lost his head in a battle fought here. To commemorate the event the name was given to this place.

Both the constituent parts, *viz.*, Katni and Murwara of the modern town are fast developing industrially and commercially. Various industries like manufacturing fire-bricks, cement, soap, paint, pottery, etc., and several sand-stone quarries, lime-kilns, etc., exist in the area. The industrial estate of the place is under great expansion. The Third Five Year Plan provides a model pottery centre, a dye-house and a fruit-preservation centre for this place. There is also an Ordnance factory, besides a ware-house to store food grain and excise materials. Brass and bronze wares and leather shoes are also locally produced.

Besides, construction of the greatest Railway Marshalling yard is in progress at the place which is also one of the leading goods stations of the State. As regards trade it has a large marketing area transacting brisk trade.

Katni Murwara has 13 Primary, 3 boys Secondary and 2 girls Secondary schools and a college for University education. The civic affairs are administered by a municipal committee since 1847. The town has a Tahsil office, a Janapada office, a Range office, a police station, a P. W. D. office, a post and telgraph office, a dispensary, a family planning clinic, a sub-centre of Health Services, a rest-house, a public *dharmashala*, a *sarai*, a Sanskrit Vidyalaya, girls schools of the Mission and other institutions working for the welfare of the public.

The town is electrified Water supply is obtained from the river and a number of wells. According to the Census of 1961 Katni section has a population of 7,103 while that of Murwara 46,159.

KONI (KALAN)

(23° 20′ N: 79° 40′ E: MSL 381 m.)

This small village of Patan tahsil is situated in the Vindhya range and is about three miles (5 Km.) to the north of Patan. It is one mile (1.6 Km.) off the Patan Damoh road, near the bank of the river Hiran A country track links the village with the above road.

Koni which appears to be an ancient place, is of considerable sanctity to the Jains of the Digambar sect who regard it as one of their *Atishaya Kshetras* (sacred place with which some miracles are associated). In a picturesque site stands a beautiful cluster of the Digambar Jain temples, *Shikharas*, which attracts the attention

tion of travellers from quite a distance. Besides these, there are many remains, such as *Hathi Darwaja* in a ruined condition, and a *ghat* on the bank of the river Hiran.

The village has a primary school. According to the Census of 1961, it is populated by 432 persons and has an area of 1,283.26 acres.

KUMHI

(23° 20′ N ; 80° 10′ E ; MSL 427 m.)

This is a large village of Sihora tahsil. It is 16 Km. east by south of Sihora and 22.4 Km. south of Sleemanabad and is situated on an elevated ground on the bank of the river Hiran. The place is ancient, containing several old temples. A copper-plate of considerable historical value was found here. The inscribed plate refers to the Kalachuri king Vijayasimha and records the grant of the village Chorlayi by Queen-mother Gosaladevi to a Brahman in 1180 A. D. It contains an authentic genealogy of the Kalachuri rulers up to Narasimhadeva. The grant was issued from Tripuri (modern Tewar), the capital of the Kalachuris.

Within the village the river Hiran has split itself into seven channels or *saptadhara*. On this spot, every year on the *Til Sankranti* day a fair, attracting about 1,25,000 persons, is held and lasts for 5 days. During the Maratha regime the place was a military base and a headquarters of their *Mamlatdar* (Tahsildar). An old fortress of those days is still standing in the village.

The village has a Primary school, a boys Secondary school, a branch post-office, a Nyaya panchayat and a sub-centre of Public Health. Bidi industry and agriculture are the main occupations of the locality. According to the Census of 1961 it is populated by 1,100 persons as against 591 in 1901.

KUNDAM

(23° 10′ N ; 80° 20′ E ; MSL 564 m.).

This village of Jabalpur tahsil lies 46.4 Km. to the east of Jabalpur on the Jabalpur-Shahpur Dindori road. Its importance lies in the fact that recently it has yielded traces in the form of tools of the pre-historic man. The name of the place is supposed to be derived from a big Kund[1] or local tank from which the Hiran river rises. Another pathetic legend is connected with the source of this river. It is said, that, once a Gond Chief, named Kalyan Singh lived here with his only daughter Hira. She was betrothed to a young man, who was living with them during the customary period of servitude, as was the Gond practice. Kalyan

1. A legendry account is already given under Burhagarh.

Singh had by this time completed the construction of a large tank. When it was complete the water overflowed its brim and burst the embankment. To prevent a repetition the Gond Chief was advised to make human sacrifice. His choice fell on his prospective son-in-law. After the sacrifice the marine god was appeased and the water subsided. But the next day, the bereaved bride jumped into the tank and committed suicide. Immediately the water rose again, smashed the tank and gushed onwards forming the Hiran river.

The village has a police-station, a Primary school, a boys Secondary school, a Gram and a Nyaya panchayat and a rest house. According to the Census of 1961, the village is inhabited by 1,536 persons as against 764 in 1901.

LAMETAGHAT

(23° 5′ N; 79° 45′ E; MSL 387 m.)

This fast developing village of Jabalpur tahsil, situated on the bank of the river Narmada, is 16 Km away from the tahsil headquarters. Jabalpur-Nagpur road is the nearest approach road to the place. The village is of importance because of the existence of several mines and kilns for brick builidng. It has a Primary school, a post-office, a Gram panchayat and a primary health centre. As per the Census of 1961, the village is populated by 510.

MAJHGAWAN

(23° 15′ N; 79° 45′ E; MSL 411 m.)

A large village of Sihora thasil, it is situated about 16 Km. by road to the south-east of the tahsil headquarters. The nearest railway station is Sihora Road (on Allahabad-Jabalpur mainline of the Central Railway) which is 14 4 Km. from the village. It is also connected by a pucca motorable road. The village is ancient and contains archaeological and epigraphic remains. The whole area is covered with sculptured and carved stones of which many have been sold by the villagers as curios. In the ruins of the temples. supposed to have been built in the 14th century, a few images have been discovered. One rock inscription which is yet to be deciphered is also traced in the neighbourhood.

Villages of this name being many in this region this village is distinguished by calling it Saroli Majhgawan as it is situated near the village Saroli. There is also a large tank on one corner of which there is an inscribed *Sati* stone dated 1360 A.D. Another such stone belongs to 1404 A D. It is said that the locality is full of iron-ore deposits. The industries practised by the people include besides agriculture, leather tanning and blacksmithy. A weekly

market is held on Thursday. The village has two Primary schools and one boys Secondary school, a post-office, a police-station, a primary health centre a family planning clinic and a tailoring centre. According to the Census of 1961 the place has a population of 3,833 as against 2,214 persons in 1901.

MAJHOLI

(23° 80′ N; 79° 55′ E; MSL 402 m.)

A large village of Sihora tahsil it lies 59.2 Km. away from Jabalpur, 19.2 Km. to the north-west of the tahsil headquarters on Sihora-Katni Road and 22.4 Km. from the Sihora Road railway station with which it is connected by a road Once the village had a famous temple of Vishnu with exquisite carving in geometrical designs. Now everything, except a large figure of Varaha, one of the incarnations of Narayana, has disappeared. The icon was caught in the net of a fisherman, while fishing in the Narira tank. Subsequently local people built a new temple around the image. This new structure is raised out of the ruins of the old temple with numerous pieces of sculptured stones, inserted in the walls. It is certainly disquieting to see the ceiling slab of the ruined temple, with its superb ornamental mouldings, being used as a mill-stone for grinding lime. Among the broken sculptures scattered in the region, is a Hara-Gauri or Siva and his wife seated, with a standing figure of Siva and a squatted Jain statue, naked as usual. On Til Sankranti day an annual fair attracting about 10,000 persons, is held around the Varaha temple and lasts for 5 days.

The village has a Primary and a boys Secondary school, general and veterinary hospitals, primary health centre, family planning clinic, police-station, post-office, Nyaya and Gram panchayats, etc. Every Thursday a large weekly market is held. According to the Census of 1961 the place is populated by 4,333 as against 1,791 in 1901.

NANHWARA KALAN

(23° 50′ N; 80° 30′ E; MSL 396 m.)

This large village of Murwara tahsil lies about 32 Km. north-west of Murwara, 4.8 Km. west of Bijairaghogarh and 12.8 Km. from Jukehi railway station on the main-line of the Central Railway connecting Jabalpur with Allahabad. It is linked by road with the tahsil headquarters.

The village contains numerous ruins and remains of old structures and carved stones. It appears that a large city of the old age lies buried here. One old temple of Brahmanical style is placed under the care of the Archaeological department. It is in a dilapidated condition.

The village has a Gram panchayat and a Primary school. Training centres in tailoring and leather-works have been recently started in the village. As per the Census of 1961, the village is inhabited by 1,823 persons as against 943 in 1901.

PANAGAR

(23° 15′ N; 79° 55′ E; MSL 390 m.)

This important town of Jabalpur tahsil lies about 16 Km. north of Jabalpur on the road running towards Mirzapur and 1.6 Km. from Deori railway station on the Allahabad-Jabalpur main-line of the Central Railway. The name appears to be a corrupt form of Pangarh (a betel fort), as the place has been very famous for its extensive betel-leaf gardens, extending along the large-size Balcha tank situated in the locality. The place is of some antiquity having a treasure of archaeological importance. Among the antiques discovered so far, the most important is a large statue of Suryadeva or the Sun-god, carved in black stone. It is more than seven feet in height and surrounded by a host of his male and female attendants. The female figures are headless but the expressions of their hands and waists are superb. In art they resemble those found at Sanchi. The main statue of the Sun is a fine specimen of the Kalachuri style of art. Adjacent to it is the field of Vasanta Kachi, where a pillar was discovered with some crude and also with some beautiful figures engraved on its upper portion. In the Kanji Kanchi are found a few temples, 5 feet in height, mobile in character and built probably in the mediaeval period by cutting a single rock.

There is also a big black-stone *Chabutra* in the bazar area, known as 'Hardaul Lala' or 'Kher Mata' with a large statue of Varaha or boar of black stone, now kept under the protection of the Archaeological Department. It is expected that systematic extensive excavations in the region would yield valuable store of historical and archaeological material.

Every year a Jain *Mela* is held here attracting about 1,000 persons. A weekly market is held on every Saturday. The place is known for the manufacture of bronze and brass wares, ornaments, etc. It is the largest cattle market in the District.

The place has 3 Primary, one boys Secondary school, a Gram and a Nyaya Panchayat, a municipal committee, a rest-house, a Block Development Office, a police-station and a post-office. The Church of England Zenana Mission conducts here a girls school, a hospital and an orphanage. The place is electrified and tap-water is available here. According to the Census of 1961, its population is 4,727 as against 4,082 in 1901.

ATAN

(23° 15′ N; 79° 40′ E; MSL 384 m.)

This small town is the headquarters of the tahsil of the same ame. It is situated about 32·80 Km. north-west of Jabalpur on the oad leading to Damoh *via* Tendukhera. The name appears to be a orrupt form of the Sanskrit name Pattanam, meaning a city. The ace has some *Sati* monuments, on one of which the name of the ratihara ruler Baghdeva and the year 1361 are inscribed. It is tuated in a tract which is most fertile and thickly populated in e District, known as 'Haveli'.

Kisan *mela*, attracting about 3,000 persons, is held here every ar from 26th to 31st January. Another fair known as the Chipa-at *mela* attracting about 1,000 persons meets every year on the *l Sankranti* day.

Besides agriculture, bamboo basket making and leather industry e the two main occupations of the people, for whom leath r and rpentry training centres are opened. The town is electrified and s mechanised drainage A weekly market is held on Wednesday.

The place has four Primary, a basic Secondary and two Higher condary schools for boys and girls, a police-station, a post-office, a t-house, a Block Development Office, a primary health centre, a pensary, a family planning clinic, a Gram and a Nyaya panchayat. e population of the town is 5,617 according to the Census of 61 as against 3,309 in 1901.

THI

(23°50′ N; 80°05′ E; MSL 411 m.)

This small village of Murwara tahsil near the head of the river n is about 32.88 Km. to the north-west of Murwara. It is a railway tion on the Bina-Katni branch of the Central Railway. To the t of the village there is a long heap of cut and carved stones, and remains of some ten or twelve temples. Numerous fragments of lptures are scattered about. There is a group of temples r a large tank which is known as Barah Deva Ka Sthana. ere is an old image of the Varaha incarnation of Vishnu with a *ga* underneath.

From *Vasant Panchami* day an annual *mela* known as *Bhatwa a*, lasting for 3 days and attracting about 3,000 persons, is held the village. A weekly market is held on Sunday. The village a Gram and a Nyaya panchayat, a police-station, a post-office, a ck Development Centre, a Primary and a Basic school. According the Census of 1961 the village is populated by 1,155 persons as inst 541 in 1901.

RUPNATH

(23°40′ N; 80°0′ E; MSL 457 m.).

It is a part of Padaria village of Sihora tahsil, lying about 4.8 Km. from Bahoriband, 30.8 Km. from Sihora Road Railway station on the Allahabad-Jabalpur main-line of the Central Railway and 83.2 Km. from Jabalpur.

The place has yielded one of the rock edicts of Asoka the Great of the 3rd century B. C. The boulder on which it is inscribed is a single flinty block of dark red sand-stone, lying just above the west margin of the lower pool to be described below. The rock edict is 4½ feet long, 1 foot broad and consits of 6 lines believed to have been incised in about 232 B. C. The edict[1] is in the form of an address to the local Buddhist Sangh and informs, that while issuing it the great Maurya Emperor had been a Buddhist for more than two and half years. It was intended to inspire the members of the Sangha to be zealous and to lead a moral life.

The name of the famous local *linga* of Siva is Rupnath. The *linga* is placed in a cleft of rock where the 'Bandar Chua' nullah pours over the face of the Kaimur range of hills. The descent is made in three falls, each having a pool one above the other and down which the water leaps in the rains from ledge to ledge in a beautiful cascade. These three pools are known after Rama, Lakshman and Sita. These are held by people as objects of worship. People believe, that if the ashes of their relatives cannot be carried for immersion either in the Ganges or the Narmada, they may be thrown into these pools, for a person whose ashes are thrown here can have an easy access to the *Swarga*. It is also believed that Rama, during his exile stayed here for some time. To commemorate his wanderings an annual fair attracting about 6,000 persons is held on the *Til Sankranti* day.

The village comes under the Development Block of Bahoriband and according to the Census of 1961 it is inhabited by 142 persons.

SIHORA

(23°29′ N; 80°6′ E; MSL 393 m.).

The headquarters town of the tahsil of the same name in Jabalpur District, it is situated to the north-west of Jabalpur at a distance of about 41.6 Km. on the Jabalpur -Mirzapur National Highway. Sihora is linked by major roads with Majholi, Katao, Majhgawan, Silondi, Bahoriband, Salaiya, etc., all in Jabalpur District. Its railway station, which is 3.2 Km. from the town, is named as Sihora Road on Katni-Itarsi main-line of the Central Railway It is said that the fortress Singhorgarh, which once existed on a small

1. A full text of the translation of this Rock Edict has been given in Appendix.

eminence in the north, had given its name in corrupt form to the place. That portion of the town is still called Garhipura and the land around it, Singhori. Dr. Hiralal, on the other hand, says that the present name is the corrupt form of Shivapura—the town of Siva. Prior to the British regime the place always remained the headquarters of a *Subah*. The modern town comprises Sihora town and a part of the mauza Khitola called Khitola Bazar which is close to the Sihora Road station.

A soft type of steel called *kheri* is made here from the iron ore, found locally, by burning it in an indigenous process. The steel is used in making edges of axes, *hasias,* knives, carpenters' tools, etc. Due to lack of fuel and other essential ingredients, the ore cannot be extensively exploited. Other occupations of the people include agriculture, trade, etc.

Civic affairs of the town are looked after by a municipal committee established in 1867. The town is electrified, and it has 5 Primary schools, 2 Secondary schools and one college besides a Sanskrit school, a Mission's girls school, a Community Development office a general hospital, a veterinary hospital, an Ayurvedic dispensary, a sub-centre of public health, a telegraph office, 2 post-offices, a rest-house, a police-station, a workshop of the Public Works Department and a branch each of the State Bank of India and Crosthwaith Co-operative Bank. A weekly market is held on Monday. According to the Census of 1961 the town is inhabited by 14,184 persons as against 5,595 in 1901.

SIMRA

(23° 55′ N: 80° 10′ E: MSL 397 m.)

This village of Murwara tahsil, situated on the right bank of the river near the northern end of the Sati-Pahar is about 16 Km. from the Katni-Murwara station.

To the east of the village there are four temples and another on the embankment of the Barati Tal. All of these are in ruins, from which a group of very finely carved idols have been rescued and placed on a *Chabutra* built in the middle of the village. Some of the stones of the four temples contain figures of the incarnations of Vishnu, such as, the boar and the dwarf. Among the images collected on the said *Chabutra,* notable are those of Brahma, Vishnu and Siva belonging to the 10th century A D. There is also the goddess Durga with ten hands and two lions for her conveyance.

In one of the modern temples of the locality, a stone containing an inscription from old ruins, has been used. The inscription mentions the name of the Kalachuri king Karnadeva who reigned in the 11th century A. D. One *Sati* monument dated 1298 A. D. lies on the bank of the tank. It gives the name of the *Sati's* husband as Rao Daulat Singh.

The village has a Primary school and two small centres of cane and bamboo industry. As per the Census of 1961 the village is populated by 403 persons as against 344 in 1901.

SLEEMANABAD

(23°38′ N; 80°15′ E; MSL 411 m.)

This village of Sihora tahsil, lying on the Katni river, is situated 24 Km. north-east of Sihora and 64 Km. from Jabalpur-Mirzapur road. It is connected by road with Bahoriband (20.45 Km.) and by a village-road with Bilhari (18.60 Km.). Its railway station, linked by a road of 3.2 Km. in length, is known as Sleemanabad Road on the Katni-Itarsi main-line of the Central Railway. The village was founded in 1832 by Col. Sleeman on the site of an old village, Kuhka. From the Mahadeva temple a beautiful head-in Jain art was discovered. Besides, images of *Navagrahas* or nine planets are also found.

About 3.2 Km. to the south-west of the railway station and between two ridges of low hills, there extends an exceedingly flat plane of land containing copper mines and rich deposits of bauxite and barytes. The latter is exported to Calcutta for exploitation by the Shalimar Company to prepare colour paints and varnish.

A weekly market is held on Fridays. Soap-making, blacksmithy and agriculture are the main occupations of the village. The village is electrified. It has two Primary schools, one each for boys and girls, a boys Secondary school, a Gram and Nyaya panchayat, a post-office and a police-station. According to the Census of 1961, the village is populated by 1,617 as against 1,270 in 1901.

SONPUR

(23°13′ N; 80°4′ E; MSL 402 m.)

This village of Jabalpur tahsil is situated at about 14.4 Km. east by north of Jabalpur on the Baghraji road. It is picturesquely situated on the high bank of the Pariat, an affluent of the Hiran river. The village appears to be an old one. Two temples are there to signify its past glory. In the days of Gond Rajas the place was their military station, while the Marathas kept a body of cavalry here. The Khamaria Ordnance factory almost touches the border of this village. An annual fair attracting about 2,000 persons is held in the locality.

The place has a Primary school, a Gram panchayat and a Nyaya panchayat. According to the Census of 1961 the village is populated by 260 persons as against 385 in 1901.

TEWAR (TRIPURI)

(25°25′ N; 82°22′ E; MSL 389 m.)

This village of Jabalpur tahsil is situated 12.8 Km. to the west of the tahsil headquarters on Jabalpur-Bheraghat road.

As has been described in details earlier in the Chapter on History, the tract covered by Tripuri and the adjacent areas is undoubtedly one of the oldest regions known to Indian tradition. It finds mention in the *Mahabharata*, the Buddhist and the early Jain texts, and several *Puraras*. Tripuri is mentioned in the *Mahabharata* together with Kosala, and its people the Tripuras are mentioned along with the Mekalas and Kurubindas.

With a view to tracing the antiquity of Tripuri from the prehistoric times, the University of Saugar entrusted the excavations at the site to Dr. M. G. Dikshit, who conducted excavations at Tripuri for two successive sessions in 1952 and 1953. On the basis of his findings he was able to carry back the antiquity of Tripuri to the proto-neolithic period. The first inhabitants at the site, according to Dr. Dikshit, were people roughly estimated to have lived in about 1,000 B. C. using microlithic implements and a painted pottery.

The excavations were carried out at Hathiagad mound, which is located in Karanbel area, the ancient site of Tripuri. The latter place is over three km. further west of Tewar village. The finds, amongst other objects and ruins, include microlithic tools, terracotta objects and terracotta figurines with foreign affinities, iron implements, copper bone and ivory objects, northern black-polished ware, red and black and red-glazed pottery of various shapes and materials; glass, shell and terracotta heads, punch-marked coins, ring-wells, step-wells, soak-pits, etc. Dr. Dikshit's was a pioneering effort, for the excavations at Tripuri were the first systematic excavations to be conducted in the erstwhile state of Madhya Pradesh. His findings were useful, so far as they went, and gave a clue to the rich past of Tripuri.[1]

To enlarge on the clues given by Dr. Dikshit, the Madhya Pradesh Government have decided to finance fresh excavations at Tripuri. A sum of about five lakh rupees is expected to be spent on the project during the next three or four years. The excavations are being

1. Dr. M. G. Dikshit has given a detailed account of these excavations in his book published under the title; 'Tripuri—1952'.

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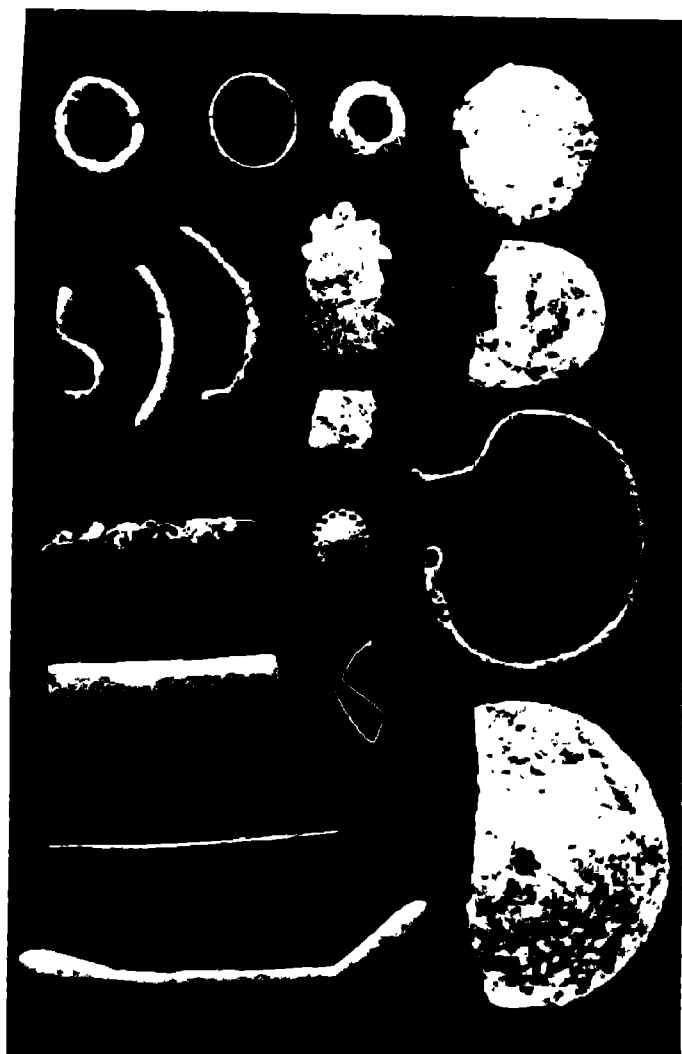
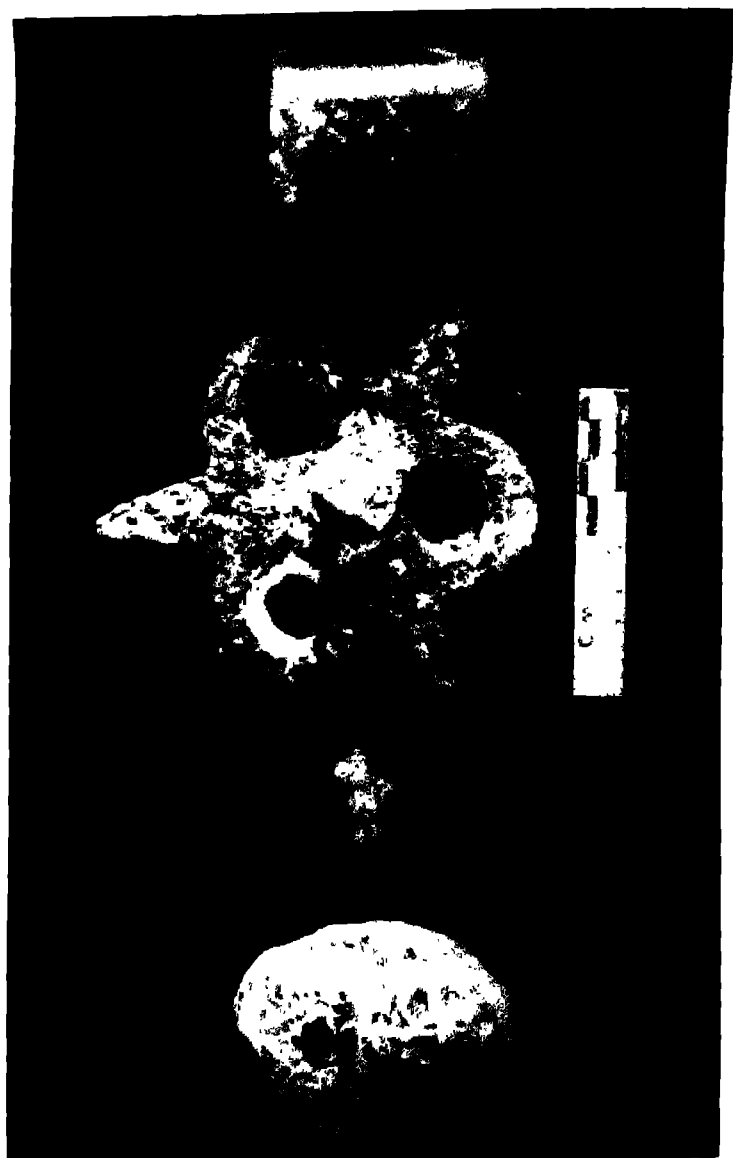

Gold, Copper and Iron ornaments and other objects from Tripuri excavations.

Copper male head, a Tantrika object and a weight from Tripuri excavations.

conducted under the guidance of the eminent archaeologist Dr. H. D. Sankalia who has been specially invited by the Chief Minister D. P. Mishra for unearthing the glory that was Tripuri. He is being assisted by research scholars from the Deccan College, Post-graduate and Research Institute, Poona, and from the Universities of Saugar, Nagpur and Baroda.[1].

Works at the site commenced in the month of January 1966. Within a short period the antiquities revealed two important objects, *viz.*, a Neolithic polished stone-axe and a mace-head of stone. According to Dr. Sankalia these are of a period at least 2,000 B.C., *i.e.*, nearly 4,000 years old.

As for the historical period, evidence gathered at the site proves that Tripuri was a flourishing city, boasting of fine pottery of various material and shapes, beautiful ornaments of clay and semi-precious stones, tools and weapons in bone and iron, and houses with wells and soak-pits. Among the weapons is a foot long spear-head of iron with brass handle. This handle has oblique grooves, with beaded decoration. Such a brass handled spear-head seems to be unique and speaks of the excellence of Tripuri craftsmanship, as well as the city's relationship with a culture which produced such a highly skilled weapon.

Though nothing could be said with certainty at present, Dr. Sankalia is hopeful that the excavations at Tripuri will yield more tangible proofs by way of houses and pottery to give us an idea about the relationship that existed between the civilization at Tripuri and Maheshwar. It may be stated here that the excavations conducted at Maheshwar and Navdatoli have brought to light the remains of the civilization which came into existence about 1,700 B. C.

The old name of the place is Tripura or Tripuri and the memory of that name is still kept by the name of a Siva *linga* called Tripureshwar and enshrined in this village. Coins have been found bearing the name of the city Tripuri, inscribed in Brahmi characters of the 3rd century B. C. These coins "are struck only on one side and by a method peculiarly Indian according to which the metal was stamped while in a semi-molten state, with the result that the impress of the die was left enclosed in a deep incuse square. The symbols on the coins are a cross, a curved line and a Chaitya". The name Tripuri occurs also in Buddhist and Brahmanical literature and in an inscription on a copper-plate, dated 493-94 A. D.

1. Now the excavation work is being carried out under the guidance of Prof. K. D. Bajpai of the University of Saugar.

found at Karitalai and issued by a Parivrajaka Maharaja probably Maharaja Jaynatha of Uchchakalpa dynasty. In the mediaeval period Tripuri remained the capital of *Dahala Mandala* under the Kalachuri kings, or otherwise called the Haihaya kings who ruled over the region upto the later part of the 12th century A.D. In the eleventh century the Kalachuri king Karnadeva made an extension of his kingdom to the south-west and laid a beautiful town of magnificent buildings and temples. He named the new capital Karnavati after his own name. The place is now deserted and there remains not a single building or any of the carved stones. The memory of Karnavati is still kept by the present name of the place Karanbel, signifying both the name of the founder of Karnavati and *bel* trees abundantly grown on the raised ground, where once stood the Hathiagarh fort, surrounded on one side by a ditch and on the other by the river Bawanganga.

The ruins of the place have been used extensively in the construction of modern structures like *ghat*, railway bridges, houses, temples, culverts, etc., and now nothing of any interest is left at the place except a *mandap* of a temple assignable to the age of Karnadeva. On one or two ruined pillars of it the figures of *Navagraha* or the nine planets and emblems of fish, mirror and *swastika* occur. To the west of the village Tewar there is a large collection of sculptures, all more or less broken, but many of which are in a fairly good state of preservation, and well carved. These sculptures are said to have been brought there from the site of Karanbel or old Karnavati The sculptures include,

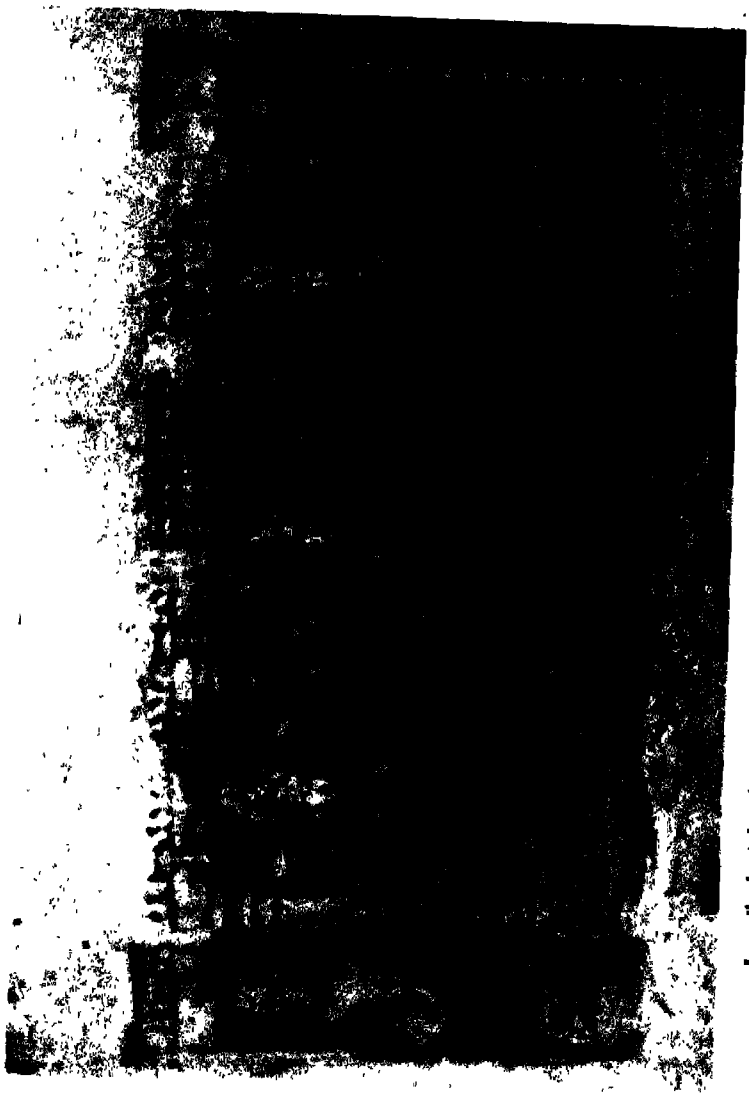
(1) a figure of Vajrapani, the perfect specimen of the Buddhist sculpture,

(2) a long broken stone with a number of figures grouping around a reclining figure. Inspite of its masculine appearance the figure is known as Tripura Devi,

(3) a small statue of a four-armed goddess on crocodile, now worshipped as Narmada Mai,

(4) three nude Jain statues, and

(5) some figures of Siva and Vishnu.

Here a big step-well embanked with stones was excavated. The well appears to be quite old. It is cruciform in shape with four narrow stair-ways. In the centre of each of the four sides several inscriptions of the Kalachuri kings were inserted. Now all of them are removed. The step-well is the source of water supply for the village. Besides, there is a large tank, known as Bala Sagar. In the middle of it there exists a modern temple constructed mostly

Inscribed stele showing Jain goddess Padmavati and other deities, Tripuri.

Tripum excavations, showing a hearth.

by using the materials of old structures. In the niches of the temple some interesting images are placed, one of which, belonging to the Jain religion, has a Tirthankara on the top and a female figure with a child in her arms. At the pedestal there is an inscription saying "Soma, wife of Manaditya daily bows" and belonging to the 12th century A.D. according to its characters.

It appears that the glory that was Tripuri departed for ever with the downfall of the Kalachuris.

The village is electrified. It has a Gram panchayat, two Primary schools and a post office. Many of the inhabitants of this village are stone-cutters whose main quarries are in the ruins of the site of the old city of Karnavati. They manufacture basements of posts, holding bars for almirahs (kundas), cups, agate-studs, images, etc., using the sandstone and marble. A weekly market is held on Sunday. According to the Census of 1961 its population is 1,476 as against 1,356 in 1901.

TIGWAN

(23° 40′ N : 80° 50′ E ; 419 m)

This small village of Sihora tahsil lies 3.2 Km. to the north of Bahoriband, 20.8 Km. west of Sleemanabad. 27.2 Km. from the tahsil headquarters and 65.6 Km. from Jabalpur. The village has a valuable store of archaeological remains. Here can be seen a low rectangular mound about 250 feet long by 120 feet broad which is entirely covered with huge blocks of cut stone. Besides, there are ruins of over 30 temples, which were destroyed by a railway contractor, who collected all the square stones to send the load away. A prompt order from the Government permanently stopped their further removal.

Only one temple of Kankali Devi is still standing in the locality. It is one of the ancient monuments in Madhya Pradesh and of about the same age of the ruins at Eran in Sagar district. It is called the temple of Kankali Devi, because on the upper panel of a slab on its left hand side there is a figure of a skeleton goddess, with her retinue of skeleton attendants On the opposite slab there is another figure of Kali. Below the former goddess is a reclining Vishnu reposing on the serpant 'Anant', while a Varaha incarnation of the same god is placed just under the figure of Kali. Probably all these figures had their entry in this temple at different periods. The structure appears to have undergone many changes.

Originally it was a 12 feet 9 inches square small stone building with a flat roof of pure Gupta style. In plan and general arrangement the temple has a striking similarity with the structural temple at Eran, cave temples at Udaygiri and the small Buddhist temple at Sanchi. It is exactly of the size of the Sanchi temple. Various other characteristics of the Gupta style are present in this temple of Tigwan. One peculiarity about it is, that the Ganga and the Yamuna who are represented on either side of the doorway are near the top, as in the Ajanta caves. This marks a very early style. In later age these *Devis* climbed down and still later they totally disappeared. The likeness of this temple with other Buddhist structures is so great that it leaves little doubt of its being a genuine Buddhist temple, subsequently converted into a Hindu shrine.

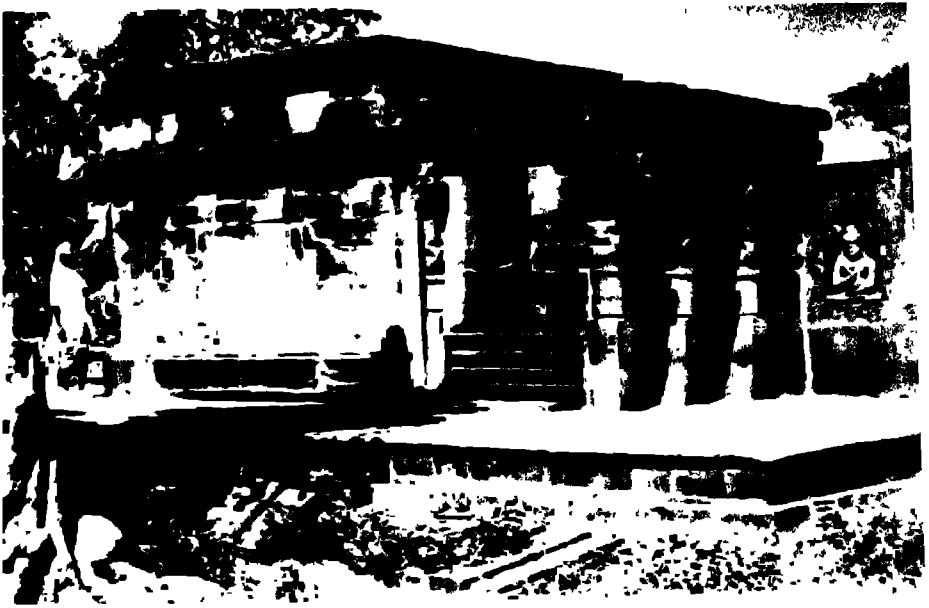
It is believed that the temple cannot be of an age later than the 5th century A. D., but more probably it is as old as the 3rd century A. D. Now the Narsimha incarnation of Vishnu is enshrined in this temple which itself consists of a single room of 8 feet by 7½ feet. On one of its pillars there is a pilgrim record of one Umadeva of Kanyakubja who paid his devotion to the temple of Setabhadra. Its characters belong to the 8th Century A D.

To the north of this temple there stands an ornamented stone doorway, the only remaining portion of another temple of the Gupta style. In its ornamentation it is strikingly similar to that of the standing temple Around the temple an annual fair is held on the 9th of every *Agrahayana* (generally November). The fair attracts about 3,000 persons and is known as Nava Durga or Kankali Devi Mela.

This village is popularly supposed to be identical with Jhanjhangarh where Alha and Udal of popular songs fought against the Raja of Marogarh. Its present name Tigwan signifies three villages, *viz.*, Deori, Amagowa and Tigwan. They formed probably a suburb of the ancient city of Bahoriband. The village is now covered for its development by the Development Block of Bahoriband. It has a Primary school. According to the Census of 1961 the village is populated by 149 persons as against 176 in 1901.

UMARIA

(23° 10′ N; 80° 15′ E: 432 m)

This largest village of Sihora tahsil is situated 19.2 Km. north-east of the tahsil headquarters and 14.4 Km. away from Sleemanabad Road station on the Katni-Itarsi main line of the Central Railway with which it is connected by a metalled road.

Kankali Devi temple, Tigwan

Shesh Shayi Vishnu from Tigwan Temple

The village has some ancient remains of exquisitely sculptured temples. One gateway is surmounted with a figure of Lakshmi, with two elephants, one on each side, pouring water over her and another with a figure of Garuda, the conveyance of Vishnu. These figures are rarely found at the top of the entrance, and in Madhya Pradesh they are rather uncommon.

The village is famous for its extensive betel leaf cultivation. A weekly market is held on every Sunday in which large business in grain, wood and bamboo is transacted.

In the month of February an annual fair, generally attended by 2,000 persons is held for 2 days. The village has a post-office, a police-station and schools for boys and girls. Its population, according to the Census of 1961 is 3,955 as against 2,356 in 1901.

APPENDICES

JABALPUR DISTRICT

APPENDIX—A TABLES

APPENDIX—B

TABLE—I

Normals and Extremes of Rainfall

Station	No. of years of data		January	February	March	April	May	June	July	August	September
(1)	(2)		(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(6)	(8)	(9)	(10)	(11)
Jabalpur	50	a	24.4	24.4	15.5	9.9	14.5	157.0	483.4	416.6	211.3
		b	2.0	2.1	1.5	0.9	1.4	8.3	18.1	17.1	9.9
Sihora	50	a	22.1	21.6	15.0	7.4	5.8	126.5	437.1	416.3	206.5
		b	1.8	1.8	1.3	0.7	0.8	7.1	17.8	17.0	9.6
Murwara .. .. — —	50	a	26.4	26.7	16.8	8.1	10.4	124.2	367.8	379.0	193.5
		b	2.2	2.0	1.5	0.9	0.9	6.9	17.3	16.0	9.3
Patan	38	a	22.9	21.6	12.9	8.9	12.2	148.6	402.3	388.1	195.3
		b	1.7	1.5	1.1	0.8	1.2	7.5	16.8	15.8	9.3
Vijayraghogarh	50	a	21.3	21.6	13.5	4.8	8.4	121.7	329.9	333.0	179.8
		b	1.6	1.8	1.2	0.5	0.8	6.8	15.9	15.5	8.6
Barera Kalan	24	a	24.4	18.3	7.9	3.6	2.3	120.4	446.5	354.1	192.8
		b	1.9	1.3	0.6	0.3	0.5	6.0	16.5	14.0	8.4
Khitoli	24	a	32.5	31.2	16.3	6.1	8.6	149.3	474.0	422.7	183.9
		b	2.5	2.5	1.1	0.7	0.9	7.9	18.2	16.7	9.1

(a) Normal rainfall in mm. based on available data upto 1958.

(b) Average number of rainy days (days with rain of 2.5 mm. or more).

Contd....

Station		October	November	December	Annual	Highest annual rainfall as % of normal & year**	Lowest annual rainfall as % of normal & year**	*Heaviest rainfall in 24 hours	
								Amount (mm)	Date*
(1)		(12)	(13)	(14)	(15)	(16)	(17)	(18)	(19)
Jabalpur	a	46.5	18.8	8.4	1430.7	150 (1919)	54 (1920)	342.9	1915, Jul. 30
	b	2.4	1.0	0.7	65.4				
Sihora	a	35.3	18.3	8.4	1320.3	151(1926)	56(1941)	292.6	1945, Jul. 6
	b	2.3	1.0	0.7	61.9				
Murwara	a	42.7	17.5	7.6	1220.7	146 (1908)	42 (1920)	222.5	1885, Aug. 7
	b	2.2	0.9	0.7	60.8				
Patan	a	46.0	12.2	8.1	1279.8	141 (1919)	49 (1941)	276.1	1923, Aug. 20
	b	2.4	0.9	0.6	59.6				
Bijayraghogarh	a	46.0	14.0	8.1	1096.1	184 (1926)	69 (1920)	365.0	1926, Sept. 1
	b	2.3	0.7	0.7	56.4				
Barera Kalan	a	34.0	10.7	6.3	1221.3	131 (1937)	45 (1941)	309.9	1959, July, 18
	b	1.8	0.6	0.5	52.4				
Khitoli	a	46.7	14.2	3.6	1394.1	128 (1942)	58 (1945)		1950, Sept., 8
	b	2.7	0.7	0.8	63.8				

* Based on all available data upto 1958.

** Years given in brackets..

Contd....

(1)	(2)		(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)	(8)	(9)	(10)	(11)
Pariat	24	a	25.4	22.1	13.5	5.6	1.5	167.6	597.7	432.1	243.6
		b	2.0	1.4	0.9	0.6	0.3	8.2	19.5	17.3	10.2
Amari	24	a	31.0	26.7	11.4	6.1	6.9	134.4	391.9	344.2	169.2
		b	2.3	2.0	0.9	0.7	0.8	6.7	16.1	14.8	8.6
Borina	24	a	25.4	20.6	14.0	4.6	6.1	111.8	369.8	339.9	169.9
		b	2.0	1.7	1.1	0.4	0.7	6.1	17.0	15.3	9.3
Bahoriband	24	a	33.3	20.8	11.7	5.3	2.0	125.9	405.9	340.6	158.7
		b	2.1	1.8	0.9	0.6	0.4	6.7	17.3	15.6	9.0
Niwar	24	a	27.7	23.9	10.4	3.8	3.6	142.7	389.6	393.5	183.2
		b	1.9	1.9	0.5	0.5	0.5	6.9	17.6	14.5	8.5
Jabalpur District		a	26.4	23.3	13.2	6.1	6.9	135.7	424.2	380.0	190.8
		b	2.0	1.8	1.1	0.6	0.8	7.1	17.3	5.8	9.1

Contd....

(1)		(12)	(13)	(14)	(15)	(16)	(17)	(18)	(19)
Pariat	a	42.7	16.5	14.2	1582.5	139	54	391.2	1958, Aug. 25
	b	2.7	0.7	0.7	64.5	(1947)	(1941)		
Amari	a	49.8	14.7	8.6	1194.9	134	61	203.2	1937, Aug 25
	b	2.6	0.7	1.1	57.2	(1942)	(1941)		
Barina	a	34.8	21.1	11.9	1129.0	139	59	208.3	1958, Jul, 21
	b	2.4	1.0	1.0	58.0	(1934)	(1932)		
Bahori band	a	40.6	15.2	8.1	1166.1	131	65	241.3	1933, Sept. 24
	b	2.4	0.9	0.6	58.3	(1943)	(1941)		
Niwar	a	45.0	15.7	9.4	1251.6	133	59	236.2	1943, Aug. 28
	b	2.2	0.8	0.7	56.5	(1934)	(1941)		
Jabalpur District	a	42.7	15.7	9.0	1278.1	143	60		
	b	2.4	0.8	0.7	59.5	(1926)	(1941)		

—Concluded

TABLE II

Frequency of Annual Rainfall

Range in mm	No. of years	Range in mm	No. of years
701—800	2	1301—1400	11
801—900	1	1401—1500	5
901—1000	3	1501—1600	3
1001—1100	6	1601—1700	2
1101—1200	7	1701—1800	1
1201—1300	8	1801—1900	1

TABLE III

Normals of Temperature and Relative Humidity
(Jabalpur Observatory)

Month	Mean Daily Maximum Temp.	Mean Daily Minimum Temp.	Highest Maximum ever recorded		Lowest Minimum ever recorded		Relative Humidity 0830*	1730*
	°C	°C	°C	Date	°C	Date	%	%
January ..	25.3	9.0	32.8	1946, Jan. 27	1.1	1946, Jan. 7	73	45
February ..	27.6	10.6	37.[illegible]	1953, Feb. 24	0.0	1905, Feb. 2	62	34
March ..	33.2	14.9	41.1	1892, Mar. 28	3.3	1898, Mar. 4	44	29
April ..	38.2	20.3	45.0	1942, Apri. 29	10.6	1905, April 1	31	18
May ..	41.0	25.3	46.7	1924, May 25	17.2	1937, May 5	29	17
June ..	36.8	26.0	46.1	1889, June 2	19.4	1922, June 3	57	49
July ..	30.2	23.7	41.7	1902, July 1	20.6	1930, July 17	89	80
August ..	29.2	23.2	35.0	1954, Aug. 7	18.3	1929, Aug. 27	85	80
September	30.7	22.5	35.0	1941, Sep. 29	16.7	1899, Sep. 30	81	70
October ..	31.1	17.6	36.7	1941, Oct. 21	7.8	188[illegible], Oct. 31	72	51
November	28.0	11.3	33.9	1957, Nov. 4	3.9	1889, Nov. 12	72	44
December	25.3	8.2	32.8	1941, Dec. 12	0.6	1902, Dec. 28	74	43
Annual ..	31.4	17.7					64	46

* Hours I. S. T.

TABLE—IV

Mean Wind Speed

(Jabalpur Observatory)

Km./Hr.

Jan.	Feb.	Mar.	Apr.	May	Jun.	Jul.	Aug.	Sept.	Oct.	Nov.	Dec.	Annual
2.6	3.1	3.4	4.0	5.3	6.3	6.1	5.5	3.9	2.4	2.1	2.1	3.9

TABLE—V

Special Weather Phenomena

(Jabalpur Observatory) (Mean No. of days)

	Jan.	Feb.	Mar.	Apr.	May	Jun.	Jul.	Aug.	Sep.	Oct.	Nov.	Dec.	Annual
Thunder	3.8	4.2	3.5	3.2	3.9	10.3	9.6	7.0	9.6	1.0	0.3	0.7	57.1
Hail ..	0	0	0.2	0	0	0.1	0	0	0	0.3	0	0	0.6
Dust Storm	0	0	0.1	0	0	0.2	0	0	0	0.4	0	0	0.7
Squall	0	0	0.1	0	0.1	0.3	0	0.1	0	0.1	0	0	0.5
Fog ..	1.3	0.5	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0.7	0.6	3.1

TABLE—VI

Location, Catchment Area, Year of Completion and Irrigable Capacity of Tanks

S. No.	Name of Tank	Location	Catchment Area (Sq. Miles)	Year of Completion (Cost in Lakhs of Rs.)	Irrigation Capacity (M. C. Ft.)	Irrigable Area (In Acres)
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)
		Marwara Tahsil				
1	Jagwa	5 miles north-east to Khitoli	6.0	1927 (4.02)	159.1	3,283
2	Khitoli	Do.	39.4	1908 (1.62)	56.5	5,750
3	Amadi Banahara	1 mile south to mile 10-11 of Katni-Barhi Road	8.5	1927 (4.99)	191 8	3,108
4	Niwar Amehta	6 miles south to Niwar Rly. Station	15.8	1918 (3.61)	249.5	3,648
5	Borina Upper	5 miles from salaiya Rly. Station	14.04	1923 (6.73)	54.2	2,000
6	Borina Lower	Do	..	1927 (—)	18.3	..
7	Sijheni	3 1/2 miles north to mile 14 of Katni—Barhi Road.	0.6	1917 (0.19)	13.0	450
8	Piprodh	49 M on Jabalpur-Mirzapur Road	3.5	1913 (0.41)	102.5	2,000
9	Saharwara Upper	8 miles south-west to Salaiya Rly. Station.	5.8	1919 (1.04)	59.9	2,470

Contd,....

(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)
10	Sakarwara Lower	.. 8 miles South west to Salaiya Rly. Station.	8.5	.. (—)	63.5	..
11	Pali	.. 2 miles from Salaiya Rly. Station ..	1.0	1906 (0.23)	15.1	425
12	Pabra	.. Do.	1.16	1912 (0.37)	23.5	840
13	Garha Banda ..	.. 7 miles South to Rithi Rly. Station	2.8	1917 (1.11)	43.21	734
14	Bhartala	.. Road side of mile 21 of Katni- Damoh Road	1.43	1912 (0.25)	24.7	750
15	Hardwara	.. 3 miles north east to Rithi Rly. Station	0.77	1912 (0.19)	16.3	340
16	Pathrehta	.. 2 1/2 miles south to mile 8 of Bijay-Raghogarh—Barhi Road.	2.9	1918 (0.82)	88.7	1,260
17	Kandia	.. 1/2 mile north of mile 6 of Sleemnabad-Bahoribund Road	2.46	1952 (0.45)	24.2	500
18	Sugawan	.. 1 1/2 miles west to miles 17 of Sleemnabad Mehfaon Road	1.0	1951 (0.25)	15.4	300
19	Patohan	.. Mile 14 of Katni-Damoh Road ..	1.0	1957 (1.92)	..	340
20	Ram Talao	.. 1/2 mile north of mile 9 of Katni-Bijayraghogarh Road	0.4	1961 (0.24)	..	100
21	Bhursa	.. On mile 28 of Katni-Khamtara Road ..	..	1960	—	86
		Jabalpur Tahsil			(—)	
22	Pariat	.. 4 miles N E to mile 11 of Jabalpur-Kundum Road.	42	1927 (18.77)	633.6	2,400
23	Jabalpur	.. 1 1/2 miles west to mile 3 of Jabalpur-Kundum Road.	2.5	1911.12 (0.68)	103.4	1500

Contd.....

(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)
24	Barera Kalan	.. 3 1/2 miles east to mile 14 of Jabalpur-Mirzapur Road.	5.23	1920 (1.84)	145.4	3,311
25	Mohari	.. 2 miles south to Barera tank	..	..	71.9	..
26	Panagar	.. 1 1/2 miles west to Jabalpur-Mirzapur Road.	2.7	1912 (0.35)	60.4	400
		Sihora Tahsil				
27	Bahoriband ..	.. 4 miles north-east to mile 14 of Sihora-Bahoribund-Salaiya Road.	42	1929 (11.71)	1218.9	5,280
28	Silpur	.. 2 miles east to mile 35 of Jabalpur Mirzapur Road	7.0 1.5	1910 (0.50)	41.7	1,700
29	Kishgee No 1 ..	.. 2 miles north-east of Silondi ..	..	..	23.8	..
30	Kishgee No 2 ..	.. Do.	..	..	36.4	..
31	Masanda ..	.. 6 miles south of Bakal at mile 24 of Bahoribund-Salaiya Road.	2.0	1917 (0.95)	57.2	900
32	Dharwara	.. 2 miles south-east of Sleemnabad Rly. Station.	7.6	1918 (1.26)	91.4	1,462
33	Prachital	.. Near village Umaria on Sihora-Umaria Road.	1.86	1904 (0.24)	32.2	890
34	Pudwara	.. 3 miles from Sleemnabad village..	0.9	1951 (0.42)	20.6	900
35	Sihora Regulator ..	.. Near Sihora village	35	1952 (0.25) Regulator	..	4,700

.... Concluded

TABLE VII

Classification of Area

(In Thousand Acres)

Year	Area According to Village Papers	Forests	Not Available for Cultivation	Other Uncultivated Land Excluding Current Fallows	Current Fallows	Net Area Sown	Area Sown More Than Once	Gross Cropped Area	Percentage of Area Sown More Than Once
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)	(8)	(9)	(10)
1909-10	2,504	221	382	627	267	1,007.0	93.2	1,100.2	9.3
1910-11	2,504	221	382	626	255	1,020.8	99.3	1,120.1	9.7
1911-12	2,505	221	381	623	296	1,043.9	121.9	1,165.8	11.7
1912-13	2,505	221	382	619	251	1,032.3	128.5	1,160.8	12.5
1913-14	2,511	226	381	637	394	873.6	35.7	909.3	4.1
1914-15	2,504	219	380	638	257	1,010.4	105.1	1,115.5	10.4
1915-16	2,504	218	380	637	229	1,039.4	122.3	1,161.7	11.8
1916-17	2,504	218	380	634	212	1,059.2	153.5	1,212.7	14.5
1917-18	2,504	218	381	640	277	988.0	149.0	11,37.0	15.1
1918-19	2,504	218	381	670	321	914.2	91.6	1,005.8	10.0
1919-20	2,506	221	380	695	272	938.0	135.4	1,073.4	14.4
1920-21	2,506	221	381	761	291	852.6	52.8	905.4	6.2
1921-22	2,506	221	380	785	214	905.7	101.4	1,007.1	11.2

Contd.....

(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)	(8)	(9)	(10)
1922-23	2,506	221	382	790	166	947.1	127.1	1,074.2	13.4
1923-24	2,506	220	383	775	173	954.9	112.0	1,066.9	11.7
1924-25	2,506	220	384	764	172	966.7	113.5	1,080.2	11.7
1925-26	2,506	220	383	743	173	986.6	103.6	1,090.2	10.5
1926-27	2,506	220	385	754	185	962.8	109.9	1,072.7	11.4
1927-28	2,505	219	385	757	192	951.3	128.9	1,080.2	13.6
1928-29	2,506	220	385	752	198	950.9	130.0	1,080.9	13.7
1929-30	2,505	219	386	751	213	936.3	107.8	1,044.1	11.5
1930-31	2'505	219	385	746	1 82	972.5	121.5	1,094.0	12.5
1931-32	2,505	219	384	736	193	972.7	130.9	1,103.6	13.5
1932-33	2,505	219	384	740	194	968.6	116.0	1,084.6	12.0
1933-34	2,505	219	383	728	190	985.4	133.9	1,119.3	13.6
1934-35	2,505	219	383	729	199	975.2	125.5	1,100.7	12.9
1935-36	2,506	219	382	740	209	955.5	104.6	1,060.1	10.9
1936-37	2,506	215	382	735	190	983.8	141.3	1,125.1	14.4

Contd.....

(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)	(8)	(9)	(10)
1937-38	2,503	215	382	739	192	978.0	135.5	1,113.5	13.9
1938-39	2,503	215	383	743	193	968.8	138.8	1,107.6	14.3
1939-40	2,503	214	383	748	212	946.3	126.8	1,073.1	13.4
1940-41	2,503	214	383	750	184	971.8	132.7	1,104.5	13.7
1941-42	2,503	214	383	760	230	916.3	53.2	969 5	5.8
1942-43	2,503	214	382	765	218	924.3	121.7	1,046.0	13.2
1943-44	2,503	214	382	753	198	955.5	154.7	1,110.2	16.2
1944-45	2,503	214	382	761	224	921.6	130.8	1,052.4	14.2
1945-46	2,503	214	382	768	224	915.3	131.8	1,047.1	14.4
1946-47	2,503	214	382	776	209	922.0	146.1	1,068.1	15.9
1947-48	2,503.4	214.4	381.5	791.0	209.1	907.4	141.5	1048.9	15.6
1948-49	2,503.4	214.4	379.5	798.2	190.4	920.9	159.7	1,080.6	17.3
1949-50	2,501.3	214.4	380.4	794.9	187.4	924.2	167.8	1,092.0	18.2
1950-51	2,501.3	214.4	380.1	802.2	189.4	915.1	104.4	1,019.5	11.4
1951-52	2,501.3	347.5	380.1	663.4	162.2	948.1	131.2	1,079.3	13.8
1952-53	2,501.3	347.8	380.2	656.9	152.1	964.3	131.6	1,095.9	13.7
1953-54	2,501.3	532.1	204.4	695.3	68.2	1001.3	131.8	1133.1	13.2
1954-55	2,501.3	530.4	206.8	664.7	61.9	1037.5	148.2	1185.7	14.3

Contd.....

(1)			(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)	(8)	(9)	(10)
1955-56	..	..	2,501.3	533.1	203.0	651.1	77.2	1036.9	160.0	1196.9	15.4
1956-57	..	..	2,501.3	534.3	201.7	641.4	81.1	1042.8	170.4	1213.2	16.3
1957-58	—	..	2,501.3	532.7	203.1	671.3	156.0	938.2	81.4	1019.6	8.7
1958-59	—	..	2,501.3	537.4	199.4	665.3	86.3	1012.9	166.7	1179.6	16.5
1959-60	..	..	2,501.3	538.1	198.0	643.1	86.2	1035.9	164.6	1200.5	15.9
1960-61	..	..	2,501.3	539.8	197.1	691.6	85.3	1047.5	174.9	1222.4	16.7
1961-62	..	..	2,499.3	536.9	196.4	617.9	81.1	1067.0	190.0	1257.0	17.8
1962-63	..	..	2,501.9	556.7	183.0	625.7	84.1	1052.4	162.7	1215.1	15.5
1963-64	..	..	2,498.1	552.9	189.3	626.1	79.2	1050.6	169.7	1220.3	16.2

....Concluded.

TABLE VIII

Area Under Principal Crops

(In Thousand Acre

Year (1)	Rice (2)	Jowar (3)	Til (4)	Wheat (5)	Gram (6)	Linseed (7)
At 30 Years' Settlement	93.0	..	28.4	284.2	52.0	19.9
1891-92 ..	183.0	17.4	40.6	450.2	73.2	45.8
1892-93 ..	197.7	10.7	37.0	478.4	97.3	45.0
1893-94 ..	182.0	11.1	47.6	367.7	26.5	76.2
At Settlement..	172.0	13.9	37.0	460.9	79.3	43.3
1894-95 ..	220.8	16.3	45.0	328.6	176.3	45.7
1895-96 ..	210.1	20.9	40.0	229.1	164.2	6.5
1896-97 ..	212.1	34.7	38.4	209.5	137.8	11.0
1897-98 ..	183.8	50.7	36.5	285.4	148.3	37.8
1898-99 ..	188.3	35.2	37.4	325.1	148.0	43.7
1899-1900 ..	168.8	40.5	63.8	191.5	128.6	16.0
1900-01 ..	149.2	48.1	83.9	296.9	141.2	53.4
1901-02 ..	158.6	38.4	76.1	323.2	127.6	37.7
1902-03 ..	157.6	47.7	84.4	333.0	136.7	49.8
1903-04 ..	123.7	36 3	99.0	363.7	118.1	56.2
1904-05 ..	161.2	28.6	70.0	362.4	125.9	48.9
1905-06 ..	124.7	36.4	63.7	280.5	163.7	43.9
1906-07 ..	152.7	37.0	73.1	308.0	169.3	50.2
1907-08 ..	160.0	30.2	61.2	235.4	115.0	16.2
1908-09 ..	137 7	41.5	38.4	252.2	145.8	60.2
1909-10 ..	154.1	41.4	65.5	256.9	160.2	50.9
1910-11 ..	111.9	41.5	84.3	309.2	171.0	58.1
1911-12 ..	136.1	29.8	77.0	307.3	159.6	88.5
1912-13 ..	176.8	23.0	51.8	274.1	196.7	74.9
1913-14 ..	156.3	21.3	60.1	163.5	180.3	24.4
1914-15 ..	154.3	40.9	71.7	232.5	172.0	84.2
1915-16 ..	170.9	60.9	68.8	267.0	153.0	59.7
1916-17 ..	187.9	46.3	56.0	300.3	161.7	65.8
1917-18 ..	181.7	23.6	31.8	334.7	167.5	68.9

Contd.....

(1)		(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)
1918-19	..	199.2	35.5	33.3	263.0	156.0	21.0
1919-20	..	196.0	28.6	27.3	306.4	178.5	49.4
1920-21	..	189.4	38.5	38.8	210.8	162.8	18.2
1921-22	..	170.8	49.9	43.7	266.7	166.6	42.5
1922-23	..	181.3	39.7	45.7	315.6	170.3	54.9
1923-24	..	181.3	26.0	43.7	326.5	175.2	62.1
1924-25	..	183.6	24.2	48.4	336.8	170.9	55.3
1925-26	—	181.5	18.5	46.8	356.6	187.0	40.4
1926-27	—	178.8	19.7	36.7	363.2	181.6	38.3
1927-28	—	189.4	28.9	32.2	356.6	176.5	43.5
1928-29	..	191.8	29.4	40.9	300.1	182.7	42.7
1929-30	—	192.3	41.4	39.6	255.8	185.5	19.3
1930-31	..	203.4	36.7	37.7	294.4	224.6	26.1
1931-32	..	190.4	32.8	37.8	316.9	208.8	32.0
1932-33	..	204.8	27.3	44.7	306.1	199.9	30.3
1933-34	..	193.6	30.5	55.0	314.3	198.5	31.8
1934-35	..	180.8	28.2	34.1	319.8	203.2	37.0
1935-36	..	194.7	25.1	34.1	300.4	203.5	29.4
1936-37	—	203.9	28.9	41.0	299.7	202.4	39.3
1937-38	..	211.4	28.0	41.8	301.0	214.3	46.5
1938-39	..	217.4	29.1	35.9	305.5	208.8	47.7
1939-40	—	229.4	29.2	32.6	285.5	183.0	44.8
1940-41	..	230.3	32.6	32.0	281.0	196.8	52.4
1941-42	..	214.8	37.6	33.4	160.0	205.9	41.9
1942-43	..	202.6	36.4	28.7	191.2	209.5	?55.7
1943-44	..	217.4	42.6	31.0	263.1	206.1	51.4
1944-45	..	226.3	44.7	21.3	227.1	181.0	48.7
1945-46	..	213.9	41.1	18.5	258.0	184.1	36.9
1946-47	..	229.7	35.2	16.7	275.9	191.8	36.6
1947-48	..	237.5	34.0	15.6	238.6	206.5	34.2
1948-49	..	240.1	30.5	14.4	254.2	204.8	35.5
1949-50	..	239.4	25.4	14.3	285.1	209.0	34.4

Contd.....

(1)		(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)
1950-51	..	250.8	25.6	15.5	243.4	199.5	16.1
1951-52	..	249.6	27.0	18.8	278.5	209.0	27.0
1952-53	..	253.3	32.9	17.3	287.6	203.5	28.1
1953-54	..	256.8	35.4	21.1	296.1	204.6	32.4
1954-55	..	255.0	37.7	23.7	330.4	210.3	34.5
1955-56	..	251.6	35.6	22.4	360.1	216.5	37.5
1956-57	..	252.0	33.5	20.5	376.2	218.7	42.8
1957-58	..	245.1	33.3	19.2	242.2	227.4	19.4
1958-59	..	258.7	40.6	21.7	315.1	231.5	37.0
1959-60	..	275.2	36.8	22.8	330.3	223.8	34.7
1960-61	..	273.6	38.9	21.8	356.1	224.3	35.7
1961-62	..	281.4	33.6	21.4	380.9	231.2	37.5
1962-63	..	285.4	35.6	18.5	361.5	216.9	37.6
1963-64	..	284.3	34.5	17.3	366.0	222.6	39.1

....Concluded.

TABLE IX

Production Of Principal Crops

(In Thousand Tons)

Year (1)		Rice (2)	Jowar (3)	Til (4)	Wheat (5)	Gram (6)	Linseed (7)
1919-20	..	40.5	..	1.2	78.0	..	5.2
1920-21	..	19.0	..	1.5	43.9	..	1.4
1921-22	..	40.0	..	2.6	88.8	..	5.3
1922-23	..	45.5	..	2.8	98.5	..	6.5
1923-24	..	39.6	..	2.0	81.6	..	3.1
1924-25	..	43.4	..	3.4	112.1	..	4.2
1925-26	..	32.7	..	2.6	96.5	..	4.1
1926-27	..	39.5	..	N. A.	100.6	..	4.3
1927-28	..	31.7	..	1.9	37.0	..	1.1
1928-29	..	28.9	..	2.5	24.9	..	0.7
1929-30	..	35.7	..	1.8	68.7	..	1.4
1930-31	..	34.2	6.1	2.3	67.4	..	2.2
1931-32	..	44.8	5.9	2.3	69.2	..	2.7
1932-33	..	34.2	5.0	2.7	N. A.	..	2.3
1933-34	..	32.5	5.1	2.8	60.1	..	2.4
1934-35	..	39.5	4.7	1.2	73.4	53.2	2.8
1935-36	..	39.3	3.8	1.2	57.5	45.1	2.5
1936-37	..	44.6	5.2	2.5	51.6	40.8	3.3
1937-38	..	42.7	5.0	2.5	63.4	43.2	4.3
1938-39	..	43.7	5.3	1.8	61.5	33.6	3.6
1939-40	..	38.6	4.9	1.6	63.2	36.9	3.8
1940-41	..	34.9	5.9	2.1	34.0	31.7	3.5
1941-42	..	18.0	5.7	1.5	16.1	24.9	1.1
1942-43	..	54.3	8.9	1.3	44.4	32.8	4.5
1943-44	..	49.2	7.4	1.8	37.1	29.1	4.3
1944-45	..	45.5	6.7	1.1	50.3	36.5	3.3
1945-46	..	41.4	9.4	1.0	46.8	37.1	2.8

Contd.....

(1)		(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)
1946-47	..	38.7	5.1	0.8	22.2	34.8	1.6
1947-48	..	47.9	5.1	0.9	55.3	45.7	3.0
1948-49	..	50.1	4.4	0.8	61.4	49.5	3.0
1949-50	..	50.0	4.2	0.9	63.1	46.3	2.9
1950-51	..	27.2	3.3	0.7	58.8	44.2	2.4
1951-52	..	45.1	5.1	1.1	56.1	42.1	1.8
1952-53	..	45.1	8.0	0.9	84.7	40.2	2.1
1953-54	..	46.6	10.7	1.3	80.2	32.1	2.5
1954-55	..	46.6	9.9	1.4	127.3	61.5	2.9
1955-56	..	50.9	6.2	1.2	90.5	59.0	3.4
1956-57	..	66.1	6.2	1.1	101.3	79.7	2.2
1957-58	..	20.9	5.3	0.5	35.9	41.1	0.7
1958-59	..	60.8	13.3	1.1	85.5	47.5	2.7
1959-60	..	56.1	14.1	0.7	100.9	89.3	3.0
1960-61	..	46.5	13.4	0.6	86.4	50.2	2.7
1961-62	..	102.2	7.0	0.8	93.0	45.2	4.1
1962-63	..	48.2	10.6	0.9	89.9	83.5	4.2
1963-64	..	52.1	11.0	0.7	69.8	56.0	3.6

....Concluded.

TABLE X

Small Scale Irrigation Works of Second Five Year Plan

S.No.	Name of Work	Cost of Work (Rs.)	Irrigable Area (Acres)
1.	Raipura Regulator	10,150	400
2.	Teori Regulator	6,600	70
3.	Mohania Regulator	9,200	550
4.	Hagni Regulator	14,000	250
5.	Uldana Regulator near Maharajpur	9,400	500
6.	Improvement to Sihora Regulator	17,000	4,700
7.	Peela Regulator	28,000	350
8.	Khurji Anicut	15,692	250
9.	Uldana Barkheda Regulator	27,500	500
10.	Bijora Anicut	42,859	200
11.	Chopra Regulator	7,600	250
12.	Budhagar Regulator	16,292	150
13.	Khabna Regulator	7,640	250
14.	Dhanpuri Regulator	6,126	200
15.	Barha Nala Regulator	15,692	250
16.	Khuroopiparia Regulator	15,290	300
17.	Katkeri Regulator	19,966	400
18.	Doondi Piparia Regulator	31,831	350
19.	Sagda Regulator	19,563	300
20.	Amoch Regulator	23,787	350
21.	Peshni Regulator	19,503	300
22.	Kanchanpur Regulator	19,966	300
23.	Pahrua Regulator	23,848	200
24.	Barkheda Regulator	11,453	200
25.	Ghugra Regulator	10,435	150
26.	Hargarh Regulator	12,315	120
27.	Khujra Regulator	23,848	200
28.	Tihari Regulator	13,000	250
29.	Bargi Regulator	21,540	350
30.	Barha Nala Regulator	15,692	400
31.	Improvement to Dehri Kalan Tank	10,678	30
32.	Katangi Regulator	24,570	273
33.	Improvement to Ramtalao Tank	24,600	100
34.	Improvement to Bhursa Tank	n. a.	86
35.	Dithawara Tank	50,000	200

TABLE XI

Area Irrigated

(In '000 Acres)

Year	Area Irrigated By: Canals	Tanks	Wells	Other Sources	Net Area Irrigated	Percentage of Net Area Irrigated to Net Area Cropped
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)
At 30 Years' Settlement ..	..	..	..	..	1.9	..
1891-92 ..	..	..	..	..	2.4	..
1892-93 ..	..	..	..	..	2.6	..
1893-94 ..	..	..	..	..	2.7	..
At Settlement	..	..	..	..	2.8	..
1994-95 ..	..	..	..	..	2.9	..
1895-96 ..	..	..	..	..	3.1	..
1896-97 ..	..	..	..	..	3.2	..
1897-98 ..	..	..	..	..	2.8	..
1898-99 ..	..	..	..	..	2.6	..
1899-1900 ..	..	..	..	..	3.1	..
1900-01 ..	..	..	..	..	2.8	..
1901-02 ..	..	..	..	..	6.1	..
1902-03 ..	..	..	..	..	3.4	..
1903-04 ..	..	..	..	..	3.4	..
1904-05 ..	..	..	..	..	4.6	..
1905-06 ..	..	..	..	..	3.7	..
1906-07 ..	..	..	..	..	3.2	..
1907-08 ..	..	..	..	..	5.8	..
1908-09 ..			..	..	4.0	..
1909-10 ..	1.3		2.7	0.4	4.4	0.4
1910-11 ..	1.0		2.6	0.4	4.0	0.5
1911-12 ..	0.8		2.3	0.5	3.6	0.5
1912-13 ..	3.4		2.6	0.9	6.9	0.7
1913-14 ..	3.4		2.8	1.6	7.8	0.9
1914-15 ..	2.5		2.9	1.0	6.4	0.6
1915-16 ..	3.5		2.7	0.8	7.0	0.7
1916-17 ..	3.8		2.6	0.7	7.1	0.7
1917-18 ..	4.4		2.5	0.7	7.7	0.8
1918-19 ..	9.2		2.9	1.2	13.3	1.5
1919-20 ..	8.3		2.8	1.3	12.4	1.3
1920-21 ..	10.2		2.8	1.7	14.7	1.7
1921-22 ..	9.6		2.7	1.2	13.5	1.5
1922-23 ..	9.6		2.5	1.0	13.1	1.4
1923-24 ..	9.4		2.5	1.0	12.9	1.4
1924-25 ..	8.9		2.4	1.0	12.3	1.3
1925-26 ..	9.8		2.5	0.5	12.8	1.3
1926-27 ..	10.2		2.4	0.9	13.5	1.4
1927-28 ..	12.0		2.5	1.0	15.5	1.6
1928-29 ..	12.5		2.6	1.2	16.3	1.7
1929-30 ..	15.0		2.9	0.9	18.8	2.0
1930-31 ..	14.6		2.7	2.1	19.4	2.0

Contd. ....

(1)		(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)
1931-32	..	13.9		2.6	1.0	17.5	1.8
1932-33	..	16.3		2.7	1.0	20.0	2.1
1933-34	..	15.0		2.9	0.9	18.8	1.
1934-35	..	14.5		2.8	0.7	18.0	1.8
1935-36	..	16.8		3.2	0.9	20.9	2.2
1936-37	..	16.1		3.0	0.8	19.9	2.1
1937-38	..	15.9		3.1	0.7	19.7	2.0
1938-39	..	16.2		3.2	0.8	20.2	2.1
1939-40	..	17.4		3.1	1.2	21.7	2.3
1940-41	..	16.6		2.9	1.6	21.1	2.2
1941-42	..	13.9		2.7	2.5	19.1	2.1
1942-43	..	13.8		2.7	0.9	17.4	1.9
1943-44	..	14.9		2.9	1.0	18.8	2.0
1944-45	..	15.1		2.7	1.1	18.9	2.1
1945-46	..	17.6		2.9	0.9	21.4	2.3
1946-47	..	16.9		2.7	1.0	20.6	2.2
1947-48	..	19.3		2.8	1.1	23.2	2.6
1948-49	..	17.9		3.1	0.9	21.9	2.4
1949-50	..	19.2		3.1	1.0	23.3	2.5
1950-51	..	20.2		3.9	1.1	25.2	2.8
1951-52	..	24.3	0.6	3.6	1.5	30.0	3.2
1952-53	..	25.8	1.0	3.2	1.7	31.7	3.3
1953-54	..	21.4	0.3	3.4	1.0	26.1	2.6
1954-55	..	25.9	0.5	0.5	1.5	28.4	2.7
1955-56	..	24.3	1.1	3.1	2.4	30.9	3.0
1956-57	..	20.5	0.5	3.4	2.8	27.2	2.6
1957-58	..	18.5	0.7	3.8	1.4	24.4	2.6
1958-59	..	24.8	0.9	4.1	1.8	31.6	3.1
1959-60	..	25.4	1.4	4.3	1.3	32.4	3.1
1960-61	..	27.0	0.7	4.0	2.2	33.9	3.2
1961-62	..	27.6	0.9	4.4	1.8	34.7	3.2
1962-63	..	28.8	0.5	4.3	1.9	35.5	3.4
1963-64	..	32.4	0.3	4.1	1.9	38.7	3.7

Concluded.

TABLE XII

Taccavi Loans

(In Rupees)

Year	Land Improvement Loans	Agricultural Loans
(1)	(2)	(3)
1891-92	1,695	825
1892-93	1,760	260
1893-94	7,617	7,509
1894-95	2,390	62,123
1895-96	..	44,171
1896-97	..	78,752
1897-98	..	1,47,822
1898-99	..	6,620
1899-1900	230	34,924
1900-01	150	68,711
1901-02	1,881	8,265
1902-03	5,835	3,986
1903-04	800	610
1904-05	5,911	6,381
1905-06	9,537	8,120
1906-07	1,240	1,124
1907-08	1,12,431	1,84,506
1908-09	..	40,000
1909-10	1,050	2,275
1910-11	2,248	1,389
1911-12	5,396	4,588
1912-13	3,992	33,088
1913-14	1,42,857	2,07,374
1914-15	13,942	1,72,314
1915-16	9,580	20,695
1916-17	1,000	1,569
1917-18	3,099	64,880
1918-19	1,91,030	2,80,516

Contd....

(1)	(2)	(3)
1919-20	18,070	1,48,893
1920-21	1,48,580	2,57,802
1921-22	3,000	79,362
1922-23	1,800	7,656
1923-24	9,242	9,622
1924-25	5,673	7,106
1925-26	2,200	7,380
1926-27	33,953	45,660
1927-28	N. A.	N. A.
1928-29	9,79,821	8,09,152
1929-30	30,033	2,34,387
1930-31	17,122	24,783
1931-32	6,663	5,235
1932-33	1,952	30,909
1933-34	1,952	82,732
1934-35	2,000	24,386
1935-36	3,700	1,762
1936-37	..	70,779
1937-38	..	39,175
1938-39	..	16,280
1939-40	2,350	42,031
1940-41	8,945	11,480
1941-42	36,436	3,11,140
1942-43	4,000	65,815
1943-44	52,135	24,135
1944-45	53,345	1,01,992
1945-46	60,150	8,149
1946-47	19,990	1,73,495
1947-48	1,60,723	2,60,035
1948-49	1,58,709	1,17,390
1949-50	7,89,180	1,39,393
1950-51	..	2,62,138
1951-52	2,64,395	8,05,472
1952-53	N. A.	N. A.
1953-54	70,760	1,89,445
1954-55	1,12,714	2,56,530
1955-56	97,715	2,53,595
1956-57	30,000	1,85,000
1957-58	2,59,620	5,11,582
1958-59	1,57,890	6,29,749
1959-60	1,19,945	1,96,780
1960-61	55,730	55,020
1961-62	2,29,975	1,99,126

....Concluded

TABLE XIII

Taccavi Advances Under Grow More Food Schemes

(In Rupees)

Year		Seeds	Manures	Misce. Agricultural Loans	Construction of Wells	Construction of Tanks	Construction of Field Embankments	Reclamation by State Tractors	Construction of Paddy Bunds	Purchase of Rahats	Soil Conservation Schemes
1951-52	..	1,81,039	55,819	45,497	27,020	6,000	1,65,065	75,094	19,085	7,300	..
1952-53	..	45,902	27,394	..	10,400	2,000	26,945	26,827	12,013	2,800	..
1953-54	..	12,196	32,146	21,580	8,880	..	64,850	50,231	4,550	1,000	..
1954-55	..	41,102	27,366	25,966	98,180	2,000	77,342	1,48,216	4,700	..	..
1955-56	..	18,521	21,564	26,940	8,340	..	32,800	1,07,458	5,700	..	..
1956-57	..	32,814	29,995	14,703	6,000	..	51,250	96,671	—	..	..
1957-58	..	88,048	15,439	22,570	74,680	3,500	39,522	3,09,378	..	..	..
1958-59	..	1,74,236	69,906	25,524	15,575	3,600	14,025	69,929	..	..	..
1959-60	..	1,05,053	51,045	19,300	22,725	1,500	10,102	64,359	..	..	..
1960-61	..	60,300	24,183	23,300	24,775	..	17,260	1,30,514	..	..	1,812
1961-62	..	54,453	18,971	28,150	53,200	..	4,200	69,516	..	..	..

NOTE :—Figs. of Col. 2 include the advances for (i) Wheat seed, (2) Paddy seed, and (3) Potato seed.

Figs. of Col. 3 include the advances for (1) ammonium sulphate, (2) superphosphate, (3) sunn seed for green manuring, and (4) fertilizer mixture.

Figs. of Col. (4) include the advances for (1) purchase of tractors, (2) purchase of pumping sets, and (3) horticulture development.

TABLE XIV

Agricultural Implements and Machinery

Item	Census Years		
	1951	1956	1961
1 Ploughs—			
Wooden	1,04,278	1,17,911	1,27,724
Iron	387	527	492
2 Carts	16,600	19,453	20,270
3 Sugarcane crushers worked by—			
Power	1	1	22
Bullocks	229	206	185
4 Oil engines with pumps for irrigation purposes	34	199	61
5 Oil engines for other purposes ..	..	28	43
6 Persian Wheels	..	26	86
7 Motes	—	2,389	2,406
8 Electric pumps for irrigation purposes	14	15	165
9 Tractors			
Government	37	61	30
Private	..	..	55
10 Ghanis—			
Five seers and over	18	26	36
Less than five seers	614	1,013	708

TABLE XV

Area Under Principal Crops (Tahsil-wise), 1961-62

(In Acres)

Tahsil		Rice	Jowar	Til	Wheat	Gram	Linseed
Jabalpur	..	39,431	2,865	3,127	76,757	52,572	3,431
Patan	..	11,150	18,770	3,623	63,687	99,493	4,291
Sihora	..	1,16,803	442	2,423	1,33,776	46,160	10,220
Murwara	..	1,14,064	11,529	12,179	1,06,697	32,965	19,580
Total	..	2,81,448	33,606	21,352	3,80,917	2,31,190	37,522

TABLE XVI

Area Irrigated (Tahsil-wise), 1961-62

(In Acres)

Tahsil		Area Irrigated by					Total
		Canals	Tanks	Tube-wells	Other Wells	Other Sources	
Jabalpur	..	4,493	26	..	1,157	834	6,510
Patan	..	..	1	39	393	305	738
Sihora	..	9,249	530	..	1,256	363	11,398
Murwara	..	13,897	331	..	1,511	274	16,013
Total	..	27,639	888	39	4,317	1,776	34,659

TABLE—XVII

List of Trade Unions Registered Under The Indian Trade Unions Act, 1926 Up To 31st March 1961

S. No.	Registration No. and Date	Name of the Union and address	Affiliation	Membership
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
1	1/27-9-37	Pottery Mazdoor Panchayat, Ganjipura, Jabalpur	74 .	33 0
2	7/19-8-46	Jabalpur Electric Supply Co., Employees Union, Jabalpur	..	..
3	8/14-10-46	Gun Carriage Factory Karmachari Union, G. C. F. Estate, Jabalpur	INTUC	2076
4	12/7-2-47	Press Workers Union, Ganjipura Jabalpur	..	60
5	13/10-3-47	Technical Development Estt., (Weapons) Employees Unions, Jabalpur	..	342
6	14/7-4-47	Labour Union Ordinance Factory, East Land Park, Katni	AIDEF	679
7	19/23-4-48	Jabalpur Shops Asstts., Union 74, Ganjipura, Jabalpur.	..	126
8	20/23-4-48	Jabalpur Rickshaw Drivers Union 74, Ganjipura, Jabalpur	..	..
9	20/26-12-48	The Central India Electric Supply Co., Workers Union, Katni	INTUC	124
10	30/22-2-49	Depot Kamgar Union, 569/1, Lalmati Ghamapur, Jabalpur.	AIDEF	117
11	44/16-3-50	Ordnance Factory Khamaria Workers Union, Vijay Nagar, Khamaria, Jabalpur	..	2,267
12	47/24-8-50	Cement Factory Mazdoor Panchayat C/o Potteries Quarters A. C. C. Factory, Katni	..	268
13	50/25-9-50	Association of Scientific Workers, Ordnance Estts., Khamaria, Jabalpur,	DSW	1105
14	53/18-12-50	Pottery Workers Union, 74 Ganjipura, Jabalpur.	..	448
15	85/24-2-53	506, Army Workshop, E. M. E. Workers Union, 1023/5 East Ghamapura Bhagwan Datt Sharma's Quarter, Jabalpur.	AIDEF	344

Contd,......

(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
16	88/3-3-53	Asbestos Cement Workers Union, Asbestos Nagar, Kymore	..	..
17	109/15-9-53	Jabalpur Bijlighar Karmachari Panchayat, 64, Civil Lines, Shram Shivir, Jabalpur	INTUC	406
18	110/9-3-54	The National India Rubber Karmachari Sangh, C/o Ramdas Shahu, Pashchimi Bhatta, Jabalpur Road, Katni.	..	98
19	123/8-6-54	Katni Tahsil Chuna Mazdoor Sangh, Bhartiya Press, Gol Bazar, Katni,	..	312
20	125/2-8-54	Kymore Cement Mazdoor Congress, Kymore	INTUC	2,966
21	127/5-8-54	Technical Development Estt., (Ammunition) Karmachari Union 1/1, Vijay Nagar East Land, Khamaria, Jabalpur	..	..
22	136/5-12-54	Military Engineering Service Employees Union, 1170-A, Modibara, Jabalpur Cantt.	AIDEF	1357
23	142/21-12-54	Katni Gumasta Sangh, Post Box No 27, Katni	..	6
24	146/31-12-54	Mahakoshal Bidi Mazdoor Sangh, Opposite Victoria Hospital, Andherdeo, Jabalpur	..	248
25	153/18-2-55	Gun Carriage Factory Canteen, Karmachari Union, Uperen Ganj, Dixitpura, Jabalpur	INTUC	56
26	173/14-7-55	Military Farm Workers Union, 850 Bal-ka Bagicha, Jabalpur	INDEF	179
27	175/21-7-55	Imperial Tobacco, Co., Employees Union, 381. Marhatal, Jabalpur	..	52
28	180/1-9-55	Rashtriya Ordnance Factory Khamaria. Karmachari Congress Asha Nagar, 1/5, East Land, Khamaria	INTUC	1,10
29	192/1-11-55	E. M. E. Workers Union, 1170-A Modibada, Jabalpur Cantt.	Cancelled	:
30	197/8-12-55	Rashtriya Bidi Kamgar Congress, 963, Lordganj, Jabalpur	..	..
31	204/14-2-56	Rashtriya Motor Karmachari Congress, 35, Wright Town, Jabalpur	INTUC	250
32	205/232-56	Rang Karkhana Mazdoor Union Katni	..	..

Contd.......

(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
33	226/27-7-56	Rashtriya Pottery Karmachari Union Burn & Co, Jabalpur	INTUC	344
34	255/28-5-57	G. C. F. Rashtriya Karmachari Union 953, Lord Ganj, Jabalpur	INTUC	1030
35	258/10-6-57	IV Class Regimental Workers Union 1170-A Modi Bada, Cantt., Jabalpur	INTUC	151
36	259/10-6-57	Jabalpur Tel Mills, Karmachari Sangh 74, Ganjipura, Jabalpur	..	61
37	260/10-6-57	Jabalpur Corporation Karmachari Sangh, Kramachari Amod Grah, Jabalpur Corporation's Office, Jabalpur	..	1,004
38	283/7-4-58	Madhya Pradesh Co-operative Bank Employees Union, C/o The Madhya Pradesh State Co-operative Bank, Ltd, Wright Town, Jabalpur	..	103
39	289/11-4-58	Saw Mills (Ara Machine) Karmachari Union, 1170-A, Modi Bada, Jabalpur	INTUC	100
40	290/15-4-58	Chuna Mazdoor Congress, Mehgaon Asbestos Nagar, Kymore via., Jukehi	..	646
41	292/24-4-58	Madhya Pradesh Motor Kamagar (C, P. T S,) Union, 644 Napier Town, Jabalpur	..	1026
42	294/15-5-58	Rashtriya Railway Cooli Sangh, 953 Lord Ganj, Jabalpur	..	122
43	296/19-5-58	Cantonment Board Sweepers & Class IV Employeels Union, 471, Cantonment, Jabalpur	..	188
44	298/21-6-58	Jabalpur Co-operative Central Bank Employees Union, C/o Jabalpur Co-operative Central Bank Ltd., Gol Bazar, Jabalpur	..	
45	300/17-7-58	Regimental Civilian Workers Union 569/1, Lalmati, Ghamapur, Jabalpur	..	72
46	317/16-2-59	Rashtriya Karmachari Union Ordnace Fy., East Land Park, Katni	INTUC	416
47	319/11-3-59	Rashtriya Pottery Works Mazdoor Sangh, 953, Lord Ganj, Jabalpur	..	198
48	325/30-4-59	M. P. Area E. M. E. Station Work-Shop Civilian Employees Union, 1170-A, Modi Bada, Cantt., Jabalpur.	INTUC	151
49	327/30-4-59	ASC Depot Civilian Employees Union, 1170-A, Modi Bada Cantt., Jabalpur.	INDWF	40

Contd......

(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
50	329/30-4-59	Kymore Quarry Karmachari Sangh, Ameraiya Para, Kymore	INTUC	157
51	330/30-4-59	Civilian Barbar Workers Union, 1170-A, Modi Bada, Jabalpur Cantt.	Cancelled	..
52	332/21-5-59	Madhya Pradesh Vidyut Pramandal Karmachari Sangh, 2 Old Mase Kothi,HowBag,Jabalpur	INTUC	315
53	335/21-5-59	P.& T. Workers Even Store Karmachari Sangh, 35, Wright Town, Jabalpur.	Cancelled	..
54	338/29-5-59	Jabalpur Cantonment Board Karmachari Sangh 1170-A, Modi Bada Cantt., Jabalpur	AIDEF	..
55	339/25-6-59	Rashtriya Nagar Nigam Prathmik Shikshak Sangh, Shram Shivir 64 North Civil Line, Jabalpur.	..	227
56	348/27-7-59	Madhya Pradesh Halwai Hotel Karmachari Union, 297, Bhartipur Ward, Shri Tiwari House, Jabalpur	..	62
57	361/17-10-59	Ishwar Industries Mazdoor Sangh Niwar, C/o Bhatir Press, Gol Bazar, Katni	..	180
58	366/28-10-59	Asptal Laghu Wetan Bhogi Karmachari Sangh 895, Bai Ka Bagicha, Jabalpur	..	103
59	368/29-10-59	Jabalpur Nagar Nigam Mazdoor Sangh Shram Shivir 64, Civil Line, Jabalpur	INTUC	124
60	369/29-10-59	Jila Bidi Mazdoor Congress, 520 Hanuman Tal, Jabalpur	INTUC	129
61	382/28-12-59	Pottery Mazdoor Congress, Niwar Amar Nagar, Niwar, Katni	..	111
62	411/17-5-60	Weaving Factory Kamgar Union, 327, Gorakhpur, Jabalpur	..	50
63	416/13-7-60	Madhya Pradesh Prathmik Shikshak Sangh, 349, Uprenganj, Jabalpur	..	..
64	417/13-7-60	Madhya Pradesh Vidyut Karmachari Sangh, Shram Shivir 64, Civil Line Jabalpur	..	..
65	430/18-10-60	Corporation Workers Union 113, Marhatal, Jabalpur	..	220
66	434/27-10-60	Sakseria National Mill Mazdoor Sangh, 59/2, Purvi Nimarganj, Garha Fatak, Jabalpur	..	51

......Concluded.

TABLE XVIII

Consumption of Electricity Supplied by Central India Electric Supply Company Ltd. (1950-1958)

(K. W. Hrs. in millions)

Year	Domestic Heat & Small Power	Domestic Light & Fan	Commercial Heat Small Power	Commercial Light & Fans	Industrial Power Low and Medium Voltage	Industrial Power High Voltage	Public Lighting	Irrigation	Public Water Works and Sewage	Distribution
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)	(8)	(9)	(10)	(11)
1950 ..	0.040	0.255	0.338	0.192	0.208	6.046	0.008	..	..	..
1951 ..	0.026	0.228	0.293	0.164	0.274	4.686	0.008	..	..	..
1952 ..	0.017	0.221	0.305	0.283	0.258	4.547	0.022	..	..	..
1953 ..	0.220	0.235	0.314	0.323	0.265	2.975	0.039	..	..	..
1954 ..	0.073	0.245	0.350	0.352	0.352	5.304	0.041	..	..	..
1955 ..	0.057	0.264	0.469	0.410	0.554	7.723	0.044	..	..	..
1956 ..	0.025	0.306	0.673	0.446	0.558	6.203	0.048	..	..	..
1958 ..	0.047	0.453	1.030	0.590	1.007	4.013	0.066	..	..	..

TABLE XIX

Number of Consumers, Central India Electric Supply Company, Ltd.

Category of Consumers.	No. of Consumers										
	1949-50	1950-51	1951-52	1952-53	1953-54	1954-55	1955-56	1956-57	1957-58	1958-59	1959-60
1. Domestic ..	105,8	948	1,019	1,084	1,161	1,247	1,363	1,396	1,468	1,468	1,711
2. Commercial ..	104	352	393	426	454	481	527	544	608	698	657
3. Low and Medium Voltage	35	25	23	36	38	48	48	48	48	48	49
4. H. T. Consumers	3	3	3	5	3	3	3	3	3	3	3
5. Water Works & Sewage Pumping	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
6. Irrigation ..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
7. Public Lighting	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1
Total Consumers ..	1,201	1,329	1,439	1,552	1,657	1,780	1,942	1,992	2,128	2,218	2,421

TABLE XX

Consumption of Electricity Supplied by Jabalpur Electric Supply Company (1950-58).

(K. W. Hrs. in millions)

Year		Domestic Heat and Small Power	Domestic Light & Fan	Commercial Heat & Small Power	Commercial Light & Fan	Industrial Power Low & Medium Voltage	Industrial Power High Voltage	Public Lighting	Irrigation	Public Water Works and Sewage	Distribution
(1)		(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)	(8)	(9)	(10)	(11)
1950	..	0.342	2.782	0.313	0.863	2.208	8.236	0.329	..	0.631	..
1951	..	0.318	2.805	0.354	0.988	2.477	9.239	0.368	0.818	..	..
1952	..	0.362	2.852	0.364	1.125	2.582	9.703	0.388	..	0.876	0.73
1953	..	0.479	3.151	0.420	1.276	2.414	10.582	0.428	..	0.959	0.855
1954	..	0.503	3.107	0.428	1.497	2.620	10.863	0.448	..	0.809	1.070
1955	..	0.530	3.533	0.449	1.422	2.835	10.683	0.454	—	0.972	1.680
1956	..	0.590	3.866	0.500	1.650	2.847	11.737	0.494	..	0.998	4.24
1958	..	0.900	3.804	0.673	2.084	4.893	16.826	0.662	—	1.442	6.701

TABLE XXI

Number of Consumers, Jabalpur Electric Supply Company

	Category of Consumers	1949-50	1950-51	1951-52	1952-53	1953-54	1954-55	1955-56	1956-57	1957-58	1958-59	1959-60
1	Domestic	6,259	6,775	6,920	7,075	7,416	7,698	9,915	9,346	10,356	10,532	11,159
2.	Commercial	721	1,159	1,270	1,370	1,419	1,532	1,998	2,069	2,268	2,328	2,491
3	Low and Medium Voltage	576	683	716	816	831	881	912	921	922	930	945
4	H.T Consumers	9	9	10	10	10	10	10	10	10	10	10
5.	Water Works and Sewage Pumping ..	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2
6	Irrigation	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
7.	Public lighting	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2
8	Distributing licensees	..	..	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	..	..
	Total Consumers ..	7,569	8,630	8,921	9,276	9,681	10,126	12,840	12,351	13,561	13,804	14,609

TABLE—XXII

The Number of Various Types of Societies

S. No.	Type of Societies	1960-61	1961-62	1962-63
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
A. Credit Societies :				
1.	Central Banks	2	2	2
2.	Primary Land Mortgage Banks ..	1	1	1
3.	Service Societies	129	253	373
4.	Large Sized Societies	25	26	26
5.	Primary Credit Societies	263	245	73
6.	Better Farming Societies	24	24	24
7.	Non-Agricultural Credit Societies ..	59	63	64
B. Non-Credit Societies:				
1.	Marketing Societies	5	5	5
2.	Joint Farming Societies	1	1	1
3.	Collective Farming Societies . ..	..	1	3
4.	Processing Societies	7	8	9
5.	Forest Labourers Societies	1	4	4
6.	Poultry Farming Societies	..	1	1
7.	Whole Sale Consumers' Store .. .	..	..	1
8.	Primary Consumer's Store	31	34	47
9.	Housing Societies	17	21	23
10.	Weavers Societies	10	10	10
11.	Industrial Societies	33	41	47
12.	Co-operative Unions and Cooperative Industries ..	2	2	2
13.	Transport Societies	2	3	3
14.	Printing and Publication	1	1	1
15.	Multipurpose Societies	15	16	16
16	Fisheries Societies	2	3	2
17.	Other such as Gram Vikas Social Services etc.	16	12	14
C. State Level Co-operative Societies				
1.	M.P. State Co-operative Bank	1	1	1
2.	M.P. State Land Mortgage Bank ..	..	1	1
3.	M.P. State Co-operative Union ..	1	1	1
4	M.P. State Co-operative Marketing ..	1	1	1
5	M.P. Handloom Weavers Society ..	1	1	1
6	M.P. State Co-operative Printing Press ..	..	..	1

APPENDIX—B—I

List of Important Fairs

S. No. (1)	Name of the place where Fair is held (2)	Time when Fair is held (3)	Occasion of the Fair (4)	Duration of the Fair (No. of days) (5)
	1. Murwara Tehsil.			
1	Katni	Sravana (July/August)	Kajalia	1
2	Katni	Kartika Sudi 15 (October/November)	Kataighat Ka Mela.	5
3	Bilhri	Pausa/Magha (January)	Sankrant ..	3
4.	Kabhera ..	Pausa/Magha (January)	Sankrant ..	4
5.	Panlai	Pausa/Magha (January)	Sankrant ..	1
6.	Barhi	Phalguna Badi 13 (February/March)	Shivratri ..	3
7.	Kanewhora ..	Phalguna Badi 13 (February/March)	Shivratri. ..	3
	2. Sihora Tahsil			
8.	Gawal	Asadha (June/July) ..	Chandi Mela ..	1
9	Gawal . ..	Asadha (June/July) ..	Ratha Yatra ..	1
10.	Kailwas	Kartika Badi 30 (October/November)	Chandi Mela	1
11.	Khabra	Kartika (October/November)	Chandi Mela	9
12.	Khetola	Kartika Sudi (October/November)	Chandi Mela	1
13.	Kanjai	Kartika (October/November)	Chandi Mela	8
14.	Chhapra ..	(December)	Satika Mela ..	3
15.	Bohariband ..	(December)	Bajarang Mela	3
16.	Pandariya . ..	Pausa/Magha (January)	Sankrant ..	1
17.	Kumhi	Pausa/Magha (January)	Satdhara Fair	7
18.	Katara	Pausa/Magha (January)	Sankrant ..	7
19.	Paunia	Pausa/Magha (January)	Sankrant ..	3
20.	Khagman ..	Pausa/Magha (January)	Sankrant ..	1
21.	Majholi	Magha (January/February)	Vishnu Barah Fair	7
22.	Pounia	Magha Sudi 5 (January/February)	Basant Panchami	2
23.	Narila	(February)	Urs	:
24.	Deori	Phalguna Badi 13 (February/March)	Shivratri	1
25.	Murrth .	Phalguna Badi 13 (February/March)	Shivratri	1

Contd. .... :

(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
26.	Gangtal ..	.. Phalguna Bdai 13 (February/March)	Shivratri ..	1
27.	Ghat Samariya ..	Phalguna Badi 13 (February/March)	Shivratri ..	1
28.	Saleemanabad ..	Phalguna Badi 13 (February/March)	Shivratri ..	2
	3. Patan Tahsil			
29.	Patharia Ghat ..	Agrahyana (November December)	Barughat Ka Mela	4
30.	Gudari ..	.. Pausa (December/January)	Shankarji Ka Mela	6
31.	Samatpur ..	Pausa/Magha (January)	Sankrant	6
32.	Patan ..	.. Pausa/Magha (January)	Sankrant	1
33.	Katangi ..	.. Pausa/Magha(January)	Sankrant ..	1
34.	Kakrehata ..	Pausa/Magha(January)	Sankrant ..	1
35.	Kudan ..	.. Phalguna (February/March	Sidha Baba Ka Mela.	3
36.	Kudan ..	.. (January)	Urs	
37.	Bhanwara ..	Magha Sudi 5 (January/February)	Basant Panchami	33
38.	Khamaria ..	Magha Sudi 5 (January/February)	Basant Panchami	1
39.	Jhangaar ..	Phalguna Badi 13 (February/March)	Shivratri	1
	4. Jabalpur Tahsil			
40.	Hanuman Tal ..	Chaitra Sudi 9 (March/April)	Ramanavami	9
41.	JGhamapur ..	(May)	Khwaja Urs	3
42.	abalpur ..	Sravana (July/August) ..	Angarh Mahabir	1
43.	Jabalpur ..	Bhadra (August/September)	Mahabir Jayanti	1
44.	Khermai Temple	Asvina (September/October)	Nav Durga	9
45.	Jabalpur ..	Kartika(October/November)	Bheraghat Fair	4
46.	Jabalpur ..	Kartika (October/November)	Gowarighat Fair	2
47.	Jabalpur ..	October	Peer Sahab's Urs	1
48.	Tilwara Ghat ..	Pausa/Magha(January)	Sankrant	2

Source :—District Census Handbook, Jabalpur District, 1961, M. P.

APPENDIX—B—II

List Of Rest Houses And Dak Bungalows

S. No.	Location of Rest House and Dak Bungalow	Name of road	Exact situation
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)
1.	Jabalpur	Cantonment-Railway Station Road.	1st mile
2.	Patan	Jabalpur Patan Road ..	20th mile
3.	Bheraghat		
	(1) Upper Rest House	Jabalpur-Shahpura Road	13th mile
	(2) Lower Rest House		
4.	Katni .. .	.. ..	..
	Rest House I .. .	..	adjoining Katni Railway Station
	Rest House II ..	.. ..	2 furlongs from railway station.
5	Barhi .. .	Katni-Barhi-Khitoli Road	29th mile
6.	Padaria	Jabalpur-Kundam road	16th mile
7.	Sleemanabad	Sleemanabad-railway feeder Road.	3rd mile
8.	Sihora .. .	Jabalpur-Mirzapur Road	26th mile.
9.	Salaiya	Salaiya Station Road ..	2nd mile
10.	Bijairaghogarh .	Chaka-Bijairaghogarh Road.	4th furlongs from Bus station (21 miles from Katni)
11.	Hiran	Jabalpur-Damoh Road	22nd mile
12.	Majholi .. .	Sihora-Majholi-Katao Road.	3rd mile
13.	Kundam .	Jabalpur-Kundam Road	29th mile
14	Bargi .	New Great Northern	19th mile
15.	Hulki .	New Great Northern	20th mile.
16.	Panagar	Jabalpur-Mirzapur ..	10th mile

APPENDIX—B—III

List Of Ferries

S. No.	Name of ferry	Location	River crossed	Road
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
1.	Sillwaraghat ..	.. ..	Gaur	Shahpura-Belhera Road
2.	Bhaironghat ..	.. ..	Narmada	Kusmer-Berkhera Road
3.	Madwa Pipariaghat	.. ..	Do.	Padaria-Padwar Road.
4.	Chargawanghat	.. ..	Gaur	Majholi-Bachaiya-Boh-ariband Road.
5.	Ramghat ..	.. Magarmoha	Narmada	Kaodia-Khirheni Road.
6.	Kusli	.. ..	Do.	Silondi Baghraji Road
7.	Kosamghat ..	.. ..	Gaur	Sleemanabad Hardua Piparia Road.
8.	Ganyarighat ..	.. Ganyari village	Do.	Deogaon Pipariya Road.
9.	Kumhi ..	.. ..	Hiran	Murwara-Khitoli Road
10.	Mandiaghat ..	..	Do	Amgaon-Bhartola Road
11.	Bindlighat ..	.. ..	Do.	Barhi Karitalai Road
12.	Bamhorighat ..	.. Bamhori	Do.	..
13.	Kutrighat ..	.. Kutri village	Do.	
14.	Sakarghat ..	.. Sakara village	Do	..
15	Itwaghat ..	.. Kaimori Village	Do	
16.	Thanaghat ..	.. Thana village	Do.	.
17.	Kakarhataghat	.. Kakarhata	Do.	
18.	Kaimorighat ..	.. Kaimori village	Do	
19.	Chargawanghat	.. Chargawan Dongri	Do.	
20.	Bhaironghat ..	.. Piparia Kalan village.	Do,	Bareli-Padwar Road
21.	Gubaaghat ..	. Belkheda village	Do.	Piparia-Baroda Road
22.	Kherrighat .	.. Kherri and Piparia village.	Do	..

(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
23.	Pondikalanghat ..	Pondi kalan village	Narmada	..
24.	Pondi-khurd ghat ..	Pondi-khurd	Do.	..
25.	Pathariaghat	Patharia village.	Do.	Piparia-Baroda Road.
26	Malkachbharghat ..	Malkachhar village	Narmada	Shahpura–Chargawan Road.
27	Dharti-Ka-chharghat	Dhartika-chhar villaeg	Do.	..
28.	Bikrampurghat ..	Bikrampur village	Do.	..
29.	Neemkhedaghat ..	Neemkheda village	Do.	..
30.	Sunacherghat	Sunacher village	Do.	..
31.	Lamhetaghat	..	Do.	..
32.	Saraswatighat	..	Do.	..
33.	Chheepghat	mile 23rd	Hiran	Jabalpur-Damoh Road.
34.	Basadighat	mile 17th	Mahanadi	Katni Barhi Khitoli Road.
35.	Bhadoraghat	mile 18th ..	Umar	Barwar-Rupaund Road.
36.	Gwarighat	mile 6th	Narmada	New Great Northern Road.
37.	Khiranighat	mile 16th	Hiran	S. M. S. Road.
38.	Indranaghat	mile 9th	Do.	Panagar-Singaldeep Maholi Road.
39.	Soharghat	mile 9th	..	Sihora-Majboli-Katao Road.
40.	Tikurighat	—	Katni river	..

APPENDIX--B—IV

List Of Charitable Endowments

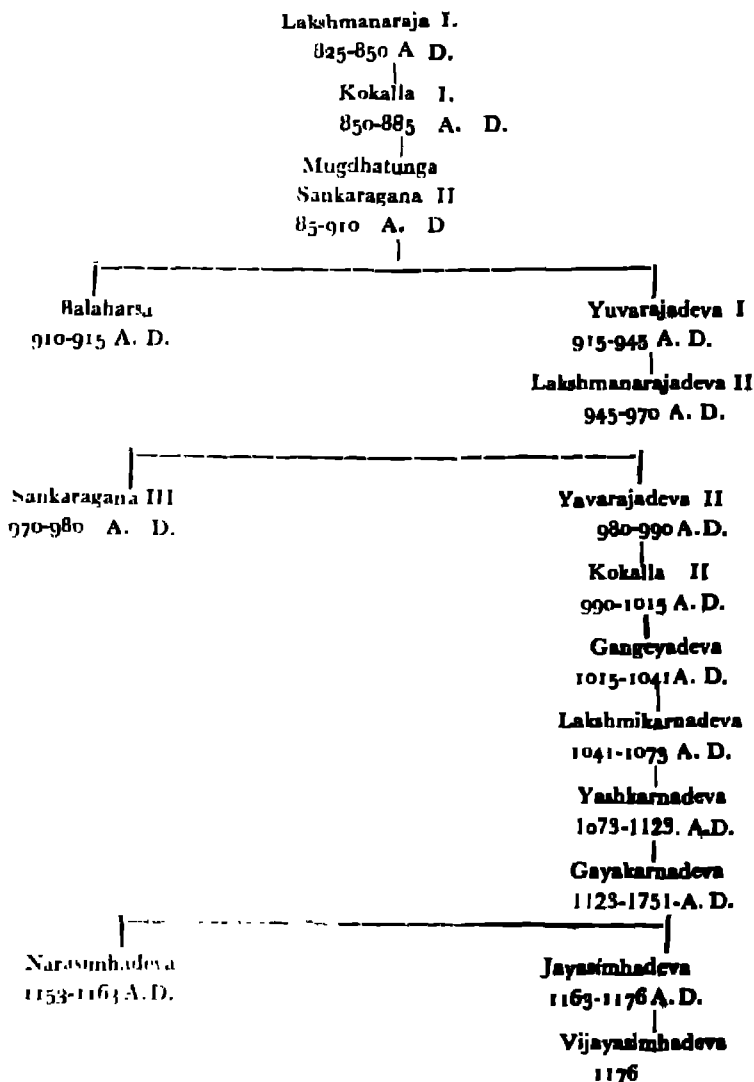
S. No. (1)	Name of Endowment (2)	Year of establishment (3)	Particulars of Awards/Scholarships, etc. (3)
1.	Seth Harjiwandas Victory Memorial Scholarship Fund ..	1920	Prizes in the shape of tools to deserving students of Robertso Industrial School, Jabalpur.
2.	Jal Dinshaw Memorial Scholarship Fund	1922	Scholarship for a student of Mahakoshal Mahavidyalaya obtaining highest number of marks in English in Intermediate (Arts and Science) Examination.
3.	Trimbak Wasudeo Apte Prize Fund	1924	A prize of Rs. 24 awarded to the student of Mahakoshal Mahavidyalava obtaining highest number of marks in Intermediate Science Examination.
4.	Unabai Prizes Fund .. — — — ..	1925	Two prizes of equal value to two girls of Murwara Hindi Girls' School.
5.	The Fox Trangways Memorial Fund	1925	Scholarships to poor European and Anglo-Indian Children of Christ Church Boys' and Girls' School, Jabalpur.
6.	Dole Memorial Competition Prize Fund	1929	Four prizes for lectures on Science subjects by B. Sc. and Intermediate students.
7.	Seth Lachmandas Baldeo Prasad Prize Fund	1930	Three prizes to the women teachers within the limits of corporation and cantonment schools on recommendation of Inspectress of Schools, Jabalpur.
8.	The Levi Creche Fund	1934-35	For the purchase of materials of daily use for the children of women trainees and teachers of Government Normal School for women, Jabalpur.

Contd. ......

	(2)	(3)	(4)
9.	Anwar Jahan Siraj Ahmed Trust Fund	1934	Prize to the best Muslim girl student from English teaching schools viz., Christ Church Girls' High School, Johnson's Girls' High School.
10.	Rai Bahadur Dr. Hiralal Centenary Scholarship Fund	1937	Scholarship to Haya-haya, Kayastha caste students who join Mahakoshal Mahavidyalaya. The Amount is returnable after completion of studies.
11.	Reva Shankar Pandya Scholarship Fund	1944	Two scholarships to the students of Baj-Khedawal community.
12.	Santosh Kumar Shrivastava Memorial Prize Fund	1946	Award of a prize for obtaining highest marks in Physics at the Intermediate Science Examination to a student of Mahakoshal Mahavidyalaya.
13.	Shri Jamna Shankar Jha Memorial Gold Medal Fund	1958	One Gold Medal for M. A. or M. Sc. Examination and another Gold Medal for B. E. (Hons) Examination.
14.	Shrimati Ambakuar Jha Gold Medal	1958	Gold Medal for B. A. and B. Sc. Examination,
15.	H. H. Maharaja Sir Brijnath Singh K. C. I. E. Ruler of Maihar Gold Medal Fund.	1959	Gold Medal to the examinee obtaining highest number of marks in Sanskrit in the B. A. Examination.
16.	Jai Ram Sarma Memorial Gold Medal Fund	1959	Gold Medal for B. A (Hons) Part II in Civil Engineering.
17.	The Fernandez Silver Medal Fund	—	Silver Medal to one student, adjudged best in gymnastics by the District Educational Officer, Jabalpur.
18.	Seth Vallabhadas Scholarship Fund	..	Scholarship to a student of Mahakoshal Mahavidyalaya.
19.	Spence Medal Fund	..	Scholarship to a student of Spence Training College, Jabalpur

......Concluded.

APPENDIX—B—V

Genealogy of The Kalachuris of Tripuri

APPENDIX—E—VI

Genealogy of The Raj Gond Rajas of Garha Mandla

Establishment of Kharji
The founder of the Garha line, 1490 A.D.

|

Sangram Shah (1480-1541)

|

Dalpat Shah (15[illegible]1-1548)

|

Bir Narayan Sha under the regency of Rani Durgavati (1548-1564)

|

Prem Shah (occupied the Gaddi of Garha as a tributary Chief of the Mughal Emperor [illegible]-1634) *

|

Hirde Shah (1634-[illegible])

|

Chhattar Shah ([illegible]76-[illegible])

|

Kesri Shah and Har [illegible] (16[illegible]-1688)

|

Narind Shah ([illegible]88-17[illegible])

|

Maharaj Shah (1732-17[illegible])

|

Sheoraj Shah (occupied the Gaddi as a tributary of the Marathas (1742-17[illegible])

|

Nizam Shah (17[illegible]-1776)

|

Nahar Shah (1776-17[illegible])

1780—Suppression of the Raj-Gond dynasty of Garha

(Source.—C. U. Wills—The Raj Gond Maharajas of the Satpura Hills, pp. 215-217

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*From 1564-90 A. D. the Garha Mandla Kingdom was under the administration of the Mughal Governors. For a few years during this period Chandra Shah and his son Madhukar Shah enjoyed some sort of a Jagirdari right in Garha Mandla territory.

APPENDIX—B—VII

Translation of The Rock Inscription of Rupnath
(By E. Hultzsch-Corpus Inscriptionum Indicarum)

(A) Devanampriya speaks thus:—

(B) Two and half years and somewhat more (have passed) since I am openly a *Sakya*.

(C) But (I had) not been very zealous.

(D) But a year and somewhat more (has passed) since I have visited the *Samgha* and have been very zealous.

(E) Those gods, who during that time had been mingled (with men) in Jambudvipa have now been made (by me) mingled (with them).

(F) For this is the fruit of zeal.

(G) And this cannot be reached by (persons of) high rank (alone), (but) even a lowely (person) is able to attain even the great heaven if he is zealous.

(H) And for the following purpose has (this) proclamation been issued (that) both the lowly and the exalted may be zealous and (that) even (my) borderers may know (it) (and) that this same zeal may be of long duration.)

(I) For this matter will (be made by me to) progress and will (be made to progress considerably: it will (be made to) progress to at least one and a half.

(J) And cause ye this matter to be engraved on rocks where an occasion presents itself.

(K) And (wherever) there are stone pillars here it must be caused to be engraved on stone pillars.

(L) And according to the letter of this (proclamation) (you) must dispatch (an officer) everywhere, as far as your district (extends).

(M) (This) proclamation was issued by (me) on tour.

(N) 256 (nights) (had then been) spent on tour.

APPENDIX—B—VIII

Location of Nyaya Panchayats

I. Jabalpur tahsil—

1. Kundam
2. Baghrai
3. Padawar
4. Barela
5. Sagada
6. Burgi
7. Sonepur
8. Sukri
9. Tewar
10. Mangela
11. Maharajpur
12. Panagar
13. Singod.

II, Murwara tahsil—

1. Bargaon
2. Mudsa
3. Paladi
4. Ratlu
5. Murwara
6. Bhairavhogarh
7. Varchheka
8. Badu
9. Salaiya
10. Pipariya
11. Bilhari
12. Itora
13. Kaymore
14. Kharahni
15. Kanwara.

III. Patan tahsil—

1. Patan
2. Katangi
3. Boria
4. Shahpur
5. Belkheda
6. Majhli
7. Chargaon
8. Sukha
9. Berkhera

IV. Sihora tahsil—

1. Bakal
2. Bahoribandh
3. Bachaiya
4. Majholi
5. Indrana
6. Gosalpur
7. Ponda
8. Kuwan
9. Kodia
10. Sleemanabad
11. Umariapan
12. Majhgawan
13. Silgodi
14. Murwari
15. Bahruwa.

APPENDIX—B—IX

Conversion Table

I. Weights.

TABLE

10	milligrams (mg)	=1 centigram
10	centigrams	=1 decigram
10	decigrams	=1 gram (1 g—1000 mg)
10	grams	=1 dekagram
10	dekagrams	=1 hectogram
10	hectograms	=1 kilogram (1 kg—1000 g)
10	kilograms	=1 myriogram
10	myriograms	=1 quintal
10	quintals .. .	=1 metric tonne (1 tonne—1000 Kg)

From old units to new units:—

1	Tola	11.66 grams
1	Chhatak .. .	=58.32 grams
1	Seer	=933.10 grams
1	Maund	=37.32 Kg.
1	Gram .	=0.0648 gram
1	Ounce	=28.35 grams
1	Pound	=453.59 grams
		=4.350 grams
1	Quarter	=12.706 kg.
1	Hunderweiht	=50.80 kg.
1	Ton	=1016.05 kg.

From new units to old units:—

1	Gram	=0.085735 tola =15.1324 grams =0.0352740 ounce
1	Kilogram	=1.07169 seer
		=2.20462 lbs.
1	Quintal	=2.67923 maunds
		220.46 lbs.
1	metric tonne	=26.7923 maunds
		=0.9842 ton.

II Length

TABLE

10 millimetres (mm)	=1 centimetre (cm)
10 centimetres	=1 decimetre
10 decimetres	=1 metre (1 m = 100 cms = 1000 mm).
10 metres	=1 dekametre
10 dekametres	=1 hectometre
10 hectometres	=1 kilometre (1 km = 1000 m.)

From old units to new units:—

1 inch	=2.54 cms.
	=25.4 mms.
	=0.0254 m
1 foot	=30.48 cms
	=0.3048 m.
1 yard	=91.44 cms.
	=0.9144 m.
1 furlong	=201.193 m
1 mile	=1.609344 km.
	=1609.344 m.
1 chain	=20.1168 m

From new units to old units.

1 mm.	=0.0394 inch
1 cm.	=0.393701 inch.
1 decimetre	=3.937 inch.
1 m.	=1.0936 yds.
	=3.28084 feet.
	=39.3701 inches.
	=0.0497097 chain
	=0.00497097 furlong.
1 hectometre	=0.062173 mile.
1 Kilometre(km)	=0.62137 mile.

III. Capacity.

TABLE

10 millilitres(ml)	=1 centilitre.
10 centilitres	=1 decilitre.

10 decilitres .. .. =1 litre (1L.=1000 ml.)

10 litres (c) .. .. 1 dekalitre.

10 dekalitres .. .. =1 hectolitre.

10 hectolitres .. .. =1 kilolitre.

From old unit to new units:—

1 ounce .. .. =28 ml (to the nearest ml.)

1 gill .. .. 142 ml. (to the nearest ml.)

1 pint .. .. =568 ml. (to the nearest ml.)

=0.56825 L.

1 quart .. .. =1 litre and 136 ml. (to the nearest ml.)

=1.13649 L.

1 gallon .. .. =4.54596 L.

1 liquid seer .. .. =940 ml. (to the nearest 10 ml.)

From new units to old units.—

1 litre .. .. =1.75980 pints.

.. .. =0.87990 quart.

.. .. =0.219975 gallon.

.. .. =1.1 liquid seer—(Approx.)

.. .. =35 liquid ounces (Approx.)

.. .. =1000.028 cubic centimetres.

.. .. =85.735 tolas of pure water.

.. .. =61.025 cubic inches.

.. .. =1.000028 cubic decimetres.

1 kilolitre .. .. =1.000028 cubic metres.

IV Volume

TABLE

1000 cubic millimetres.. .. .. =1 cubic centimetre.

1000 cubic centimetres.. .. .. =1 cubic decimetre.

1000 cubic decimetres .. .. .. 1 cubic metre.

From old units to new units.——

1 cubic inch .. .. -16.3871 cubic centimetres.

1 cubic foot .. .. -28.3168 cubic decimetres.

-28.316 litres.

1 cubic yard .. .. -0.76455 cubic metre.

1 gallon .. .. -90.00454609 cubic metre.

-4.5496 litres.

-4.54609 cubic decimetres.

1 ounce .. .. -28.4132 cubic centimetres.

1 gill .. .. -142.066 cubic centimetres.

1 pint .. .. -568.2440 cubic centimetres

-0.56825 litre.

1 quart .. .. -1.1365 litres.

1 litre .. .. -1000.028 cubic centimetres.

-1.000028 cubic decimetres.

From new units to old units. —

1 cubic centimetre .. .. .. 0.061024 cubic inch.

-0.0070390 gill.

-0.0351949 ounce.

1 cubic decimetre .. .. .. -0.0353147 cubic foot.

-0.99997 litre.

1 cubic metre .. .. -35.315 cubic foot.

-1.30795 cubic yard.

-219.969 gallon.

-0.99997 kilolitre.

V Area.—

TABLE

100 sq mm. .. .. .. -1 sq. cm.

100 sq. cm. .. .. 1 sq. decimetre.

100 sq decimetre .. .. .. -1 sq. metre (1sq. m.-10000 sq. cm.)

100 sq. metres .. .. -1 are or 1 sq. dekametre.

100 ares .. .. -1 hectare of 1 sq. hectometre (1 hectare (ha) - 10000 dq.m.)

100 hectares .. .. 1 square kilometre

From old unit to new units.—

1 sq. inch	-6.4516 sq. cm.
	-0.00064516 sq. m.
1 sq. foot	929.03 sq. cm.
	-0.092903 sq. m.
	-9.2903 sq. decimetres.
1 sq. yard	-0.83613 sq. metre.
	-0.0083613 are.
1 cent	-40.4686 metres.
1 sq. chain	-404.686 sq. metres.
1 acres (4840 sq. yds.	-0.404686 hectare.
or 10 sq. chains)	-40.4686 ares.
1 sq. mile (640 acres)	-258.999 hectares.
	-2.58999 sq. kilometres.

From new units to old units.

1 square cm	-0.155000 sq. inch.
1 sq. metre	-1550.00 sq. inch.
	-10.7639 sq. foot.
	-1.19599 sq. yard.
1 are	-119.599 sq. yard.
	-0.0247105 acres.
1 hectare	-2.47105 acres.
1 sq. kilometre	-0.386101 sq. mile

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29	17	Steams	Stems
38	33	farmed	framed
39	5	considerabiy	considerably
	32	destsoyed	destroyed
43	29	*Boselephs*	*Boselephus*
50	8	(*Turnx maculatus*)	(*Turnix maculatus*)
51	36	waterhan	waterhen
52	33	B. A. D.I Abraeu	B. A. D.' Abraeu
54	9	Catle	Catla
57	33	rainfail	rainfall
60	Foot-note 8	p. 19	p. 19 ff.
61	28	Prayog	Prayag
62	5	Bodhisattavo	Bodhisattva
	7	lady	lay
	8	she	Denuva
	Last	drakness	darkness
66	1	Gujaras	Gurjaras

Page	Line	For	Read
67	18	Kolachuris	Kalachuris
68	2	msddle	middle
	5	earlsesι	earliest
69	Foot-note 4	Chaus	of chaus
71	30	coincsdes	coincides
	Last	Form	From
73	Foot-note 4	Indiscriptionum	Inscriptionum
78	17	100	1000
79	30	consequests	conquests
82	10	antecendents	antecedents
83	Last	Aghana	Afghana
87	30	agress	egress
100	32	conculsions	convulsions
102	8	or	of
	10	7	1
107	24	Bsjairaghogarh	Bijairaghogarh
	Foot-note 2	India	Indies
		Vol. I	Vol. ix, p. 272
108	21	1853	1858
110	16	attend	attended
111	3	Gurzon's	Curzon's
112	31	become	became
113	33	siad	said
115	3	processson	procession
117	8	newpaper	newspaper
	Foot-note 3	Collecorate	Collectorate
122	26-27	improtant	important
	36	*Stayagrahais*	*Satyagrahis*
123	20	2nd	11th
124	8	telegram	telegraph
	37	India	Indian
126	7	236	326
	Table, line 2 Col. 6	2,82,328	2,82,228

Page	Line	For	Read
127	3	ship have .... popul-	-lation in the District. It will be seen that in 1961 Jabalpur tahsil ....
136	7	... migration discussed from villages as in	migration from villages as discussed in
141	Table, line 2 Col 6	6,800	6,880
156	25-26	garands	garlands
162	23	waist	wrist
172	20	86	36
173	Total Col. 2	67,656	57,656
197	15	13.14	13.4
200	5	spared	spread
202	26-27	The beam ..... of a rope	—
210	38	desease	disease
230	41	50'70'	50—'70'
235	8	Plantations	is given below
248	13	exes	axes
251	25-26	invesgation	investigation
256	Table, line 2, Col. 1	1808	1908
304	6	Mortgage	Land Mortgage
308	5	lenged	legend
323	8-9	The	The roads
332	10	is	its
342	25	gange	gauge
344	4	can	can be
346	12	posses	possess
357	25	verterinarians	veterinarians
359	16	entrans	entrants
360	26	busines	business
365	Table, line 3, Col. 1	1,4731	1,46,731
367	Foot-note line 2	No. 2	No. 1

Page	Line	For	Read
370	1	*rab*	*rabi*
414	33	salve	slave
415	Last Foot-note	1	5
416	6	temporory	temporary
418	Table, line 1, Col. 2	[illegible]	3,22,908
420	9	capacity	rapacity
424	22	gralling	[illegible]
431	32	his	this
435	Table, line 4, Col. 2	5,25,195	5,35,195
438	5	nomnal	nominal
441	8	other	others
442	Table, line 2, Col 2	45,48,524	[illegible]
445	Table, line 8, Col. 1	—	1961-62
447	Table, heading of Col. 2	Regis	Registered
452	28	ordinory	ordinary
453	15	According	Accordingly
455	19	he	the
468	Table	[illegible]	offences
501	2	shiwn	shown
504	16	Bodies	Boards
513	24	or	of
516	Table, heading of Col. 2	imles	miles
538	Foot-note	[illegible]	Marhatal
578	14	such	much
579	25	later of	later on
580	14	Privince	Province
590	Heading	Public Hospital	Public Hospitals
592	Table, line 4, Col. 1	1969-60	1959-60
601	23	Indan	Indian
604	25	Hygine	Hygiene
611	20	Flectric	Electric
623	Table, line 9, Col. 1	31at	31st
626	9	6,13,304	61,304
638	7	of Rs.	of
651	23	*Lok Sawa*	*Lok Sewa*
653	33	Parasi	Parsai
654	37	*Saptamik*	*Saptahik*